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ARISTOTLE

THE NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

ARISTOTLE

THE NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

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In the first place he is the hardest author by far I ever meddled with. Then he has a dry conciseness that makes one imagine one is perusing a table of contents rather than a book ; it tastes for all the world like chopped hay, or rather like chopped logic ; for he has a violent affection to that art, being in some sort his own invention ; so that he often loses himself in little trifling distinctions and verbal niceties, and what is worse, leaves you to extricate yourself as you can. Thirdly, he has suffered vastly by his transcribers, as all authors of great brevity necessarily must. Fourthly and lastly, he has abundance of fine, uncommon things, which make him well worth the pains he gives one. You see what you have to expect.

THOMAS GRAY'S *Letters*.

INTRODUCTION

LIFE OF ARISTOTLE

ARISTOTLE's life is known to us in some detail from various sources, the chief being the *Lives of the Philosophers* by Diogenes of Laerte. He was born in 384 B.C. at Stageirus on the Gulf of the Strymon, and though he lived half his life at Athens he remained a citizen of that little colony in the North. His father was an hereditary member of the medical profession, and physician to King Amyntas II. of Macedon. At the age of seventeen Aristotle went for higher education to Athens. There this 'young son of a doctor from the colonies' became a pupil of Plato; and he was a member of the Academy for twenty years, till the founder's death. Plato called him 'the mind of the School.' Aristotle's debt to his master was very great; although in natural science he went far beyond him—his interest in biology he may have inherited from his father,—in philosophy he built on Plato's foundations. He assumes in his readers a knowledge of Plato's writings; and if he only mentions him to differ from

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him, the spirit in which he differs can be seen in a well-known passage in the *Ethics*.^a

When Speusippus succeeded Plato as head of the Academy, Aristotle left Athens. For three years he lived with his friend and former fellow-student, Hermeias, once a slave, then a banker, and now 'tyrant' of Atarneus and Assos in Mysia; whose niece he married. Hermeias falling into the hands of the Persians, Aristotle took refuge in the neighbouring island of Lesbos, but was afterwards invited by King Philip to return to Macedon and undertake the education of the crown-prince, now thirteen years old. According to Plutarch, Alexander revered his tutor no less than his father, declaring (in Aristotelian phrase) that 'to the one he owed life, to the other the good life.' Aristotle's influence may be traced in the conqueror's respect for Greece and his love of Hellenic culture, though not in his design to fuse Greek and barbarian as equals under his empire. Both Philip and Alexander supplied the philosopher with endowment; and Alexander placed the hunters, fowlers, fishermen, and stock-keepers of the empire under his orders to assist his zoological studies, though it must be said that Aristotle's works show little acquaintance with the fauna of the East.

Alexander became regent of Macedon at the age of sixteen, when Philip was making war on Byzan-

^a 1. vi. 1. The sentence, itself copied from Plato, became proverbial, and in the form *Amicus Plato sed magis amica* (or *sed maior*) *veritas* has floated down the ages to Don Quixote and Mr. Shandy. Bacon misrepresented the position when he wrote 'Aristotle, as though he had been of the race of the Ottomans, thought he could not reign except the first thing he did he killed all his brethren.'

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tium. Stageirus had been destroyed by Philip in the Olynthian war, but Aristotle had been permitted to restore it, and there he now retired. But when Alexander succeeded to his father's throne in 336 B.C., Aristotle again settled at Athens. He now definitely broke away from the Academy, of which Xenocrates had become head, and set up as a teacher in the Lyceum. This was a precinct with colonnades and shrines, sacred to Apollo and the Muses, just outside the city ; its walks, in which the master taught his pupils, gave the new school its name of Peripatetic. Here he instituted a sort of collegiate life, besides forming a large library and a museum of natural history.

This fourth and culminating period of Aristotle's life, his professorship at Athens, lasted twelve years. In 322 B.C. the sudden death of Alexander was followed by a Greek revolt, in which Athens took the lead. Aristotle, an alien, a protégé of the court, a friend of the viceroy Antipater, and a critic of democracy, was marked out to be a victim of anti-Macedonian feeling. The attack, like that against Socrates before, took the form of a prosecution for impiety. Declaring that he would not let Athens 'sin twice against philosophy,' Aristotle withdrew to the Macedonian stronghold of Chalcis, where he had property ; and there within a year he died. His will, preserved by Diogenes, names Antipater as chief executor, and makes minute provision for his family and his slaves, some of whom are to be rewarded with freedom.

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ARISTOTLE'S WORKS

Aristotle's writings fell into two groups. One consisted of more or less popular works^a on philosophical subjects, many of them in dialogue form, which were published (ἐκδομένοι λόγοι); the other of scientific treatises (ἀκροατικοὶ λόγοι), recording for his students his oral teaching, and kept in the library of the school. The former group is entirely lost, unless the treatise on the Constitution of Athens, rediscovered in 1890, be held to belong to it; but it is to these books that Cicero and Quintilian must be referring when they speak of the charm and flow of Aristotle's style, since those qualities are for the most part not to be found in his extant works. These are not books at all; each is a collection of separate discourses on different parts of some subject, loosely put together to form a treatise on the whole. The transitional passages, summing up what has been said or outlining what is to come, are often inaccurate, and some of the cross references are hard to trace. The style is uneven; some chapters may consist of little more than outlines of the argument, in others it is completely but baldly set out; while other passages again are written in a copious and even eloquent style. Cicero^b refers to Aristotle's writings as *commentarii*, notes; and their nature is best explained by supposing that they are drafts of his courses of lectures, put together by himself or more

^a These are doubtless to be reckoned among the ἐξωτερικοὶ λόγοι referred to in Aristotle's extant works, though that term seems to include ἑταῖρων discourses of other philosophers as well. See note on i. xiii. 9.

^b *De finibus* v. 12.

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probably by his pupils to form treatises on the various departments of philosophy and science, and preserved in his school as an encyclopaedia for the use of students. Not only the style but occasional illustrations and allusions suggest the lecturer ; indeed, they enabled Henry Jackson, in an entertaining paper,^a to reconstruct for us Aristotle's lecture-room, with its pupils, furniture and apparatus, and even the busts and pictures that adorned it.

HIS ETHICAL TREATISES

The Aristotelian Corpus contains three complete treatises on moral science, the *Nicomachean Ethics*, the *Eudemian Ethics*, and the *Magna Moralia*. Nicomachus was Aristotle's son, and is mentioned as a minor in his will ; he fell in battle while still young. Eudemus was the pupil who adhered most closely to the master's teaching. They may have been the editors of the works that bear their names ; though the early commentator Porphyry speaks of these as ' dedicated to ' Nicomachus and Eudemus. In any case, no one questions that the *Nicomachean Ethics* is the authoritative statement of Aristotle's system. The *Eudemian* may perhaps be regarded as an earlier course of lectures, giving his views in a less mature form. The *Great Ethics* is a shorter course, probably compiled by a Peripatetic of the next generation, and based partly on the *Nicomachean* but chiefly on the *Eudemian*.

^a *Journal of Philology*, No. 70.

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THE NICOMACHEAN-EUDEMIAN BOOKS

A curious problem is raised by the fact that Books V.-VII. of the *Nicomachean Ethics* belong also to the *Eudemean* ; or so it is stated in the mss. of the latter, which omit this part of the treatise and refer the reader to the other work. The natural inference is that Aristotle left only one course of lectures on these portions of the subject. It is true that the amphibious Books fit somewhat loosely into the general argument of the *Nicomachean Ethics*, and it has been held that they really belong to the *Eudemean*, the corresponding parts of the *Nicomachean* having been lost. Recent opinion on the other hand has inclined to assign them to the *Nicomachean*, and to suppose the loss of three Books of the *Eudemean* ; some passages in the other *Eudemean* Books seem to point to a different treatment of the topics of the doubtful Books, and so does the handling of these topics in the *Magna Moralia*. But the uncertainty of arguments of this nature is shown by what has been said above about the loose construction of the Aristotelian treatises in general. We have no option but to accept Books V.-VII. as Aristotle's considered doctrine on the topics of which they treat, except in so far as they are modified by other parts of the work.

CLASSIFICATION OF SCIENCES

Aristotle's conception of Ethics is based on a technicality that he inherits from Plato, the division of Science into Theoretic and Practical. Theoretic Science is prompted by intellectual curiosity, and

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aims at knowledge for its own sake ; Practical Science is pursued for the guidance of life, and seeks knowledge only as a means to action. Theoretic Science studies that part of the universe of things which is unchanging—the Deity, the fixed stars, the fundamental principles of being, the laws of mathematics—together with such mutable things as ‘ have their source of change within them,’ in so far as that change is necessary, and obeys a natural law of growth and decay. Practical Science studies things that ‘ have their source of change in something else,’ that ‘ can be otherwise ’ ; and it aims at ‘ devising rules for successful intervention in the course of events, to produce results which but for our intervention would not have come about ’ (Taylor).

ETHICS AND PRACTICAL SCIENCE

Within this latter field, the place of ethical science is partly indicated in the opening chapters of the *Nicomachean Ethics*. The Practical Sciences or Arts are themselves subdivided into the Sciences of making and the Sciences of doing. The former aim at some product or result ; of the latter their own exercise is the End. The former, the ‘ Poietic ’ or Productive Sciences, include the professions and handicrafts ; on two of the most important of these sciences Aristotle wrote treatises, the *Rhetoric* and the *Poetics*. Those of the latter group, called Practical Sciences in a narrower sense of the term, comprise such arts as dancing, which are pursued for their own sake.

Now there is one supreme Practical Science, the

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Science of man's Good or Happiness. It is 'practical' both in the wider and the narrower sense ; for (a) it studies not merely what Happiness is, but how it is to be achieved, and (b) Happiness is not a product of action, but itself consists in activity of a certain sort : it is a mode of life. This master-science includes within itself, or controls for its own uses, all the other and special Practical Sciences, both those that do things and those that make things ; for all the arts, crafts, professions, and studies aim in some subsidiary or departmental way at the welfare of man.

ETHICS A DEPARTMENT OF POLITIKÉ

But man, in Aristotle's zoology, is the political animal ; the human race is a gregarious species that lives in communities designed for the sake not of life alone but of the good life—the communities which, in their highest form then known, the Greeks entitled Cities. This supreme Practical Science therefore, the Science of human affairs (*N.E.* x. ix. 22), is styled in the introductory chapters of the work the Science of Politics ; for if man's Happiness is a certain mode of life, his mode of life is shaped for him by his social environment, by the laws, customs, and institutions of the community to which he belongs. A social being can only achieve his good in society, and in a society rightly organized for his welfare. The Science of Politics therefore has to discover, first, in what mode of life man's happiness consists, next, by what form of government and social institutions that mode of life can be secured for him. The first question is to be decided by a study of man's *éthos*

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or character ; this occupies the *Nicomachean Ethics*. The second requires an investigation of the right constitution of the State ; this is carried out in the *Politics*, which purports to be a sequel to the *Ethics*, or the second half of a single treatise, although it bears the title which in the introduction has been given to the subject as a whole.

THE NICOMACHEAN ETHICS : OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

A Brief outline of the contents of the *Ethics* will show it to be, like most of Aristotle's extant works, a compilation of several separate *logoi* or discourses, somewhat loosely worked up into a complete treatise.

Book I. defines the subject as the study of human welfare or Happiness, which is the supreme End or aim of conduct. This is found to consist in the active exercise of the various excellences or virtues of man's nature, or rather of the highest one among them. A review of the Virtues is led up to by a brief excursus on Psychology (i. xiii.) ; the human Soul is shown to include two parts besides the purely animal vital faculties : these are the Rational Intellect and the Character, which experiences the passions and appetites, but which is capable of obedience to reason. The human virtues thus fall into two classes, Intellectual and Moral.

Book II. defines Moral Virtue as a certain ' habit ' or state of the will ; it is a fixed disposition to observe the mean—to do or feel not too much and not too little—in the various departments of conduct. A list (c. vii.) of the separate Moral Virtues, and of the Vices of excess and defect corresponding to each,

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serves as a table of contents to Books III. and IV., in which each of the Virtues and graces of character is examined in detail, and shown to be a form of moderation in conduct. This detailed treatment of the Virtues is prefaced (III. i.-v.) by an excursus on the Freedom of the Will; it is ascertained what constitutes a voluntary act, for which the agent is morally responsible.

So far the treatise hangs together well enough. But the three following books, the ones which belong also to the *Eudemian Ethics*, are more disconnected. Book V. consists of an independent essay on Justice, which clearly could not be omitted in a review of the Moral Virtues, but which was not included in the list of Book II. c. vii., and which is with difficulty accommodated to the formula of the Mean.

Book VI. passes to the Intellectual Virtues. Here the fullest treatment is given to Prudence or Practical Wisdom, which as determining the Mean supplies an essential factor to the Moral Virtues. The higher mental excellence of Theoretic or philosophical Wisdom is more scantily described, and is not explicitly shown to be the highest of the Virtues, as the general argument of the treatise requires.

Book VII. is a disconnected appendix to the section on Moral Virtues. It deals with Weakness of Will, as a state of character intermediate between the virtue of Temperance and the vice of Profligacy. The subject is treated without reference to the related passages, those on Voluntariness and on Temperance as a virtue lying between two vices, in Book III. Failure of will being due to the temptation of pleasure, Book VII. ends with an excursus on Pleasure, refuting the view that it is essentially evil,

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and defining it as the 'unimpeded activity' of a natural faculty.

Books VIII. and IX., a fifth of the whole work, form an essay on Friendship (Friendliness or Amiability having figured in Book II. c. vii. and Book IV. c. vi. as one of the minor graces of character). The term is extended to include the mutual regard accompanying any social relationship. This section of the treatise serves to correct the mainly egoistic or self-regarding nature of the remainder; it is related to the general theme by showing both that friends are a necessary means to some virtuous activities, and that friendship forms a part of the End, since it enlarges the life of the individual by his sympathetic consciousness of the virtuous activities of his friends.

Book X. begins with a second and unconnected excursus on Pleasure; this is now more accurately analysed as a concomitant and completion of activity, thus being brought into relation (though by no means clearly) with the End.

Then follows the conclusion of the whole argument: as Wisdom is the highest of the Virtues, Happiness *ex definitione* consists in the activity in which Wisdom is manifested, and this activity is *Theoria*, the disinterested contemplation of truth. • Of this activity man is capable in virtue of something divine in his nature; and in the brief periods when he can attain to it he approximates to the life of the Deity. Because of his humanity, he must also engage in the life of moral action among his fellow-men; but this affords Happiness only in a secondary degree. Thought is the highest form of Action; and man's End and aim is to rise as often and as long as he can

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to the activity of Thought. We may infer that it is the business of Politics (though this is nowhere stated) so to organize the State that as many of the citizens as possible may be fitted by nature and education, and enabled by circumstances, to attain this End.

ARISTOTLE'S ETHICAL METHOD

That Ethics differs from pure Science in introducing the consideration of values, or in studying what ought to be and not merely what is, will be admitted. How far this difference is adequately conveyed by Aristotle's conception of a Practical Science, and whether that conception is entirely free from confusion of thought, this is not the place to enquire. It may however be pointed out that this conception of the subject has a great influence on the method of its investigation. Ethics, Aristotle holds, dealing as it does with the contingent, with 'things which may be otherwise,' is not an exact science. Its conclusions will have only a general and not a universal validity; for its reasonings cannot achieve rigid demonstration. He insists more than once that the method of Ethics is inductive, and his actual procedure consists largely in an appeal to common sense; his favourite mode of approach is to propound the chief opinions current among philosophers and men in general on the topics in hand, to ascertain the degree in which they are inconsistent with one another, to prune away this inconsistent fringe, and to leave standing that residuum of truth which is found to be common to the opinions examined; and he constantly tests his

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results by the general moral judgement of his age and country, as evidenced by proverbs and quotations, by the forms of language, and by the accepted terms of praise and censure. The work is addressed to the educated layman, and not to professed philosophers only; it is not ostensibly based on the fundamental principles of Aristotle's philosophy—for example, at the end of Book I. he is content with the crude psychology of the Academy, and ignores the more scientific teaching of his own *De anima*; and considerable parts of the treatise, such as chapters x. and xi. of the same Book, are popular in form and inconclusive in result.

But it would be wrong to imply either that his work consisted simply in reducing to a system the common moral code of his age and race, or that he regarded his results as merely tentative. The salient points and main conclusions of his argument—the formal definition of Happiness, the quasi-mathematical analysis of Moral Virtue as an observance of the Mean, the identification of that highest activity in which Happiness by definition consists in the exercise of pure thought—are undoubtedly put forward as truths of absolute validity; and the trains of reasoning by which they are led up to are largely *a priori*. Nor is Aristotle's *Ethic* in reality detached from his general system of philosophy. To mention important instances, the content of *Theoria* or the contemplative activity, the nature of the divine life to which that activity approximates, and the relation of man to the Deity which that approximation involves, are all matters which bring morals into relation with metaphysics, and upon which his views can only be fully discovered by the study of his other

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writings. And the general procedure of this treatise is not unaffected by the technicalities of his scientific thought. In particular, the whole structure is coloured by the philosopher's teleological view of nature and of life. It is this that prompts him to base his theory of human conduct on the conception of the *Telos* or End ; and the various implications of that conception, related but distinguishable yet not distinguished, do much to guide him to his conclusions. *Telos* means not only nor primarily aim or purpose, but completion or perfection : the aim of a living organism, the final cause of its being, is to realize the potentiality of its nature, to grow into a perfect specimen of its species. Hence comes the assumption that not only can conduct or purposive action be centred on a single aim, from which the entire ethical system can be deduced, but also that this aim consists in the full development and exercise in action of man's natural faculties. But again *Telos* also connotes End in the sense of ultimate point, the last term of a series, the summit and crown of a process. Hence the tendency to think of the End not as a sum of Goods, but as one Good which is the Best. Man's welfare thus is ultimately found to consist, not in the employment of all his faculties in due proportion, but only in the activity of the highest faculty, the 'theoretic' intellect. Not that the lower activities can be dispensed with ; for the philosopher is a man, and must live in the world of men, exercising the Moral Virtues, and the intellectual excellence of Prudence or Practical Wisdom which the Moral Virtues involve. But in strictness the Life of Action has no absolute value ; it is not a part of, but only a means to, the End, which is the Life of Thought.

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Yet in the section of the *Ethics* devoted to the Moral Virtues they are described with an enthusiasm that seems to invest them with a substantive value of their own ; and this especially where the formula of the mean is felt to be inadequate, and is supplemented by the proviso that virtuous actions, to spring from a true habit of virtue, must be done τοῦ καλοῦ ἕνεκα, for the sake of the moral beauty and rightness of the act itself ; as if moral conduct were not merely a means or an indispensable pre-requisite, but a constituent part, of the Good Life. And the same is true of some places in the essay on Friendship, which is clearly felt not only to facilitate, but to augment and to enhance, the attainment of the End by the individual.

There is here an ambiguity in Aristotle's ethical doctrine which is nowhere cleared up.

Among all the relics of Greek antiquity, Aristotle's *Ethics* is one of those that retain their interest most freshly. To many readers, new to this kind of study, its application of rigorous logical analysis to the problem of conduct comes as a revelation.^a It is true that a moral system which so exalts the life of the intellect is in many ways alien to modern thought and practice ; but in so far as Aristotle's End can be interpreted less exclusively, and taken to include complete self-development and self-expression, the full realization in healthy activity of all the potentialities of human nature, his teaching has not lost

^a Henry Jackson wrote (*Memoir*, p. 158): 'It is an *aperient* book, if I may use the phrase. I have never forgotten the effect it produced on me when I was an undergraduate.'

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its appeal. His review of the virtues and graces of character that the Greeks admired stands in such striking contrast with Christian Ethics that this section of the work is a document of primary importance for the student of the Pagan world. But it has more than a historic value. Both in its likeness and in its difference it is a touchstone for that modern idea of a gentleman, which supplies or used to supply an important part of the English race with its working religion.

TEXT

The text of this edition of the *Nicomachean Ethics* is based on that of Bekker (1831), the foundation of all subsequent work on Aristotle. I have however revised Bekker's text with the aid of the editions of Susemihl (1880), Bywater (1891), and Apelt (1902), and the published notes of other scholars. In occasionally preferring other readings or conjectures to those accepted by Bekker,^a I have been partly guided by the assumptions that Aristotle was, with certain fairly well-defined qualifications, a thinker and writer of extreme precision, and that his text has undergone, in the ms. tradition, at least an average amount of corruption of the usual kinds: among others, the replacement of a word by another occurring in or suggested by the context (see H. Richards, *Aristotelica*, p. 74), and the misplacement of a clause omitted in its proper position and inserted a little lower down. On the other hand I have ignored such far-reaching reconstructions, based on theories of

^a I have published notes on some of these places in the *Classical Review*, xxxix.

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‘ duplicate passages ’ and the ‘ dislocation ’ of whole paragraphs, as have been attempted by Cook Wilson and by Henry Jackson ; the very nature of Aristotle’s writings, as described above, seems to preclude the attainment of trustworthy results on these lines.

Where I have departed from Bekker (except in trifles), I have given the rejected reading in the footnotes. These also contain a selection of such ms. variants and conjectural emendations as seem to be of interest for sense or style ; but they make no attempt to give a complete view of the state of the mss.

MSS.

A valuable examination of the chief sources for the text is made in Bywater’s *Contributions to the Textual Criticism of Aristotle’s Nicomachean Ethics* (1892), and other information will be found in Susemihl’s preface.

Bekker bases his text on the following six mss. :

K ^b	Laurentianus lxxxi. 11 :	10th c.
L ^b	Parisiensis 1854 :	12th c.
M ^b	Marcianus 213 :	about 14th c.
O ^b	Riccardianus 46 :	“ ” “ ”
H ^a	Marcianus 214 :	“ ” “ ”
N ^b	Marcianus Append. iv. 53 :	“ ” “ ”

Of these the oldest, K^b, is the best ; and though not without many ordinary errors, it is comparatively free from emendation. The next oldest, L^b, is not quite so good, but its variants must be weighed on their merits. The four more recent mss. are of little value. H^a and N^b are usually ignored by

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Bekker, as their unique readings are idle variants or corruptions. M^b and O^b are rather better, but their variants when not worthless are mostly due to emendation. In the present edition these four mss. are only quoted when preferred to both K^b and L^b.

Other mss. have been collated by other scholars, but none has any authority; now and then their readings are preferable on their merits, and a few of these have been quoted here from Susemihl.

Another witness, ranking in importance next to the best mss., is the thirteenth-century Latin translation (Γ) attributed to William of Moerbeke, which is the basis of the commentary of St. Thomas Aquinas. This version follows the Greek as closely as Latin idiom permits, and is almost equivalent to another Greek ms.; it occasionally shows an independent tradition of the text.

Some textual value attaches to the commentary of Aspasius (Asp.), second century A.D. (edited by Heylbut 1889), but only where we can be sure that he is quoting and not merely paraphrasing Aristotle, and that his quotations have not been assimilated by copyists to their mss. of Aristotle. His text differed little from our mss., and constantly confirms the antiquity of their questionable readings; it generally supports K^b, sometimes L^b, and rarely gives a new variant. A similar use can be made of the commentary of Alexander of Aphrodisias, c. 200 A.D.

A few variants of interest have been gleaned by the industry of scholars from the Greek paraphrase of Heliodorus (Hel.), 1367, the Latin translations of Aretinus (Ar.), 1473, Argropylos, 1473, and Felicianus,

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1542, and the Aldine *editio princeps* (Ald.) of the whole of Aristotle, 1495-98.^a

BOOKS OF REFERENCE

A full bibliography to the *Nicomachean Ethics* will be found in the Teubner edition of Apelt.

Of English commentaries the most recent and most important are those of J. A. Stewart (1892) and J. Burnet (1900). Professor Stewart's two volumes contain an admirable paraphrase of the treatise and an invaluable collection of material for its interpretation and illustration. Professor Burnet's work, though most illuminating, hardly professes to give a complete commentary; it is a stimulating essay in defence of the theses (1) that the *Nicomachean Ethics* is 'a dialectical and not a demonstrative work' throughout, so that Aristotle 'is not committed to all or any of the solutions he gives' of the various questions raised; and (2) that the *Eudemian Ethics* (except the three disputed Books, which belong to the *Nicomachean*) was written by Eudemus as a record of his master's doctrine to supplement the *Nicomachean*, on which it therefore constitutes 'the most authoritative commentary'; the *Nicomachean* being substantially the work of Aristotle himself, Nicomachus having died too young to write though not perhaps to edit it.

Valuable studies of parts of the treatise are Henry

^a An earlier folio edition of the *Ethica ad Nicomachum* is undated. Another edition appeared at Louvain 1513, and the whole of Aristotle edited by Erasmus was published at Bâle 1531.

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Jackson's edition of Books V. (1879) and L. H. Greenwood's of Book VI. (1909).

Aristotle's Theory of Conduct, by Thomas Marshall (1905), though not always correct in details, is a useful presentation of the contents of the *Ethics* for English readers.

Among English translations, that of F. H. Peters, first published in 1881 and several times revised by the author (15th edition 1925), seems to have won recognition as the best. It is marked by terseness and felicity, but appears to me not entirely free from the defect that I have noticed in other versions, a failure to exhibit the logical sequence of the argument. Mr. Ross's translation (1925) appeared while my work was in the press, and I have not had the advantage of consulting it.

For Aristotle's philosophy as a whole the reader may be referred to two brilliant little books, A. E. Taylor's *Aristotle* and J. L. Stocks's *Aristotelianism*, to W. D. Ross's *Aristotle* (1923), a masterpiece of compressed exposition, and to T. Case's article 'Aristotle' in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 1911; and for a full treatment with quotations and references, to Zeller's *Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics* (English translation 1897)-

ARISTOTLE'S
NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

ΑΡΙΣΤΟΤΕΛΟΥΣ ΗΘΙΚΩΝ ΝΙΚΟΜΑΧΕΙΩΝ Α

- i Πᾶσα τέχνη καὶ πᾶσα μέθοδος, ὁμοίως δὲ πράξεις τε καὶ προαίρεσις, ἀγαθοῦ τινὸς ἐφίεσθαι δοκεῖ· διὸ καλῶς ἀπεφήναντο τὰγαθὸν οὐδὲ πάντ' ἐφίεται.
- 2 (διαφορὰ δὲ τις φαίνεται τῶν τελῶν· τὰ μὲν γὰρ εἰσιν ἐνέργειαι, τὰ δὲ παρ' αὐτάς ἔργα τινά· ὧν δ' εἰσὶ τέλη τινὰ παρὰ τὰς πράξεις, ἐν τούτοις βελτίω
- 3 πέφυκε τῶν ἐνεργειῶν τὰ ἔργα.) πολλῶν δὲ πράξεων οὐσῶν καὶ τεχνῶν καὶ ἐπιστημῶν πολλὰ γίνεται καὶ τὰ τέλη· ἰατρικῆς μὲν γὰρ ὑγίεια, ναυπηγικῆς δὲ πλοῖον, στρατηγικῆς δὲ νίκη,
- 4 οἰκονομικῆς δὲ πλοῦτος. ὅσαι δ' εἰσὶ τῶν τοιούτων ὑπὸ μίαν τινὰ δύναμιν—καθάπερ ὑπὸ τὴν ἵππικὴν ἢ χαλνοποικῶν, καὶ ὅσαι ἄλλαι τῶν ἵππικῶν ὀργάνων εἰσὶν, αὕτη δὲ καὶ πᾶσα πολεμικὴ πράξις ὑπὸ τὴν στρατηγικὴν, τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ¹ τρόπον

¹ δὲ Ald. : δη.

^a Aristotle gives flute-playing as an instance of an art the practice of which is an end in itself, in contrast with the art of building, the end of which is the house built (*Magna Moralia*, 1211 b 27 ff.).

ARISTOTLE'S NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

BOOK I

- 1 Every art and every investigation, and likewise every practical pursuit or undertaking, seems to aim at some good : hence it has been well said that the
- 2 Good is that at which all things aim. (It is true that a certain variety is to be observed among the ends at which the arts and sciences aim : in some cases the activity of practising the art is itself the end,^a whereas in others the end is some product over and above the mere exercise of the art ; and in the arts whose ends are certain things beside the practice of the arts themselves, these products are essentially superior
- 3 in value to the activities.) But as there are numerous pursuits and arts and sciences, it follows that their ends are correspondingly numerous : for instance, the end of the science of medicine is health, that of the art of shipbuilding a vessel, that of strategy
- 4 victory, that of domestic economy wealth. Now in cases where several such pursuits are subordinate to some single faculty—as bridle-making and the other trades concerned with horses' harness are subordinate to horsemanship, and this and every other military pursuit to the science of strategy, and

Book I.
Happiness.
cc. i-iii.
Introduction : the
nature of
the subject.
c. i. Every
Practical
Science has
an End.

ΑΡΙΣΤΟΤΕΛΟΥΣ ΗΘΙΚΩΝ ΝΙΚΟΜΑΧΕΙΩΝ Α

- i Πᾶσα τέχνη καὶ πᾶσα μέθοδος, ὁμοίως δὲ πράξις τε καὶ προαίρεσις, ἀγαθοῦ τινὸς ἐφίεσθαι δοκεῖ· διὸ καλῶς ἀπεφήναντο τὰγαθὸν οὐ πάντ' ἐφίεται.
- 2 (διαφορὰ δέ τις φαίνεται τῶν τελῶν· τὰ μὲν γάρ εἰσιν ἐνέργειαι, τὰ δὲ παρ' αὐτὰς ἔργα τινά· ὧν δ' εἰσὶ τέλη τινὰ παρὰ τὰς πράξεις, ἐν τούτοις βελτίω
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^a Aristotle gives flute-playing as an instance of an art the practice of which is an end in itself, in contrast with the art of building, the end of which is the house built (*Magna Moralia*, 1211 b 27 ff.).

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

Every art and every investigation, and likewise every practical pursuit or undertaking, seems to aim at some good : hence it has been well said that the Good is that at which all things aim. (It is true that a certain variety is to be observed among the ends at which the arts and sciences aim : in some cases the activity of practising the art is itself the end,^a whereas in others the end is some product over and above the mere exercise of the art ; and in the arts whose ends are certain things beside the practice of the arts themselves, these products are essentially superior in value to the activities.) But as there are numerous pursuits and arts and sciences, it follows that their ends are correspondingly numerous : for instance, the end of the science of medicine is health, that of the art of shipbuilding a vessel, that of strategy victory, that of domestic economy wealth. Now in cases where several such pursuits are subordinate to some single faculty—as bridle-making and the other trades concerned with horses' harness are subordinate to horsemanship, and this and every other military pursuit to the science of strategy, and

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ἄλλαι ὑφ' ἐτέρας—ἐν ἀπάσαις δὴ¹ τὰ τῶν ἀρχι-
 τεκτονικῶν τέλη πάντων ἐστὶν αἰρετώτερα τῶν ὑπ' 15
 5 αὐτά· τούτων γὰρ χάριν καὶ κεῖνα διώκεται. (δια-
 φέρει δ' οὐδὲν τὰς ἐνεργείας αὐτὰς εἶναι τὰ τέλη
 τῶν πράξεων ἢ παρὰ ταύτας ἄλλο τι, καθάπερ
 ἐπὶ τῶν λεχθεισῶν ἐπιστημῶν.)

- ii Εἰ δὴ τι τέλος ἐστὶ τῶν πρακτῶν ὃ δι' αὐτὸ
 βουλόμεθα, τᾶλλα δὲ διὰ τοῦτο, καὶ μὴ πάντα δι' 20
 ἕτερον αἰρούμεθα (πρόεισι γὰρ οὕτω γ' εἰς ἄπειρον,
 ὥστ' εἶναι κενὴν καὶ ματαίαν τὴν ὄρεξιν), δῆλον
 2 ὥς τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη τἀγαθὸν καὶ τὸ ἄριστον. ἄρ' οὖν
 καὶ πρὸς τὸν βίον ἡ γνώσις αὐτοῦ μεγάλην ἔχει
 ῥοπήν, καὶ καθάπερ τοξόται σκοπὸν ἔχοντες,
 3 μᾶλλον ἂν τυγχάνοιμεν τοῦ δέοντος; εἰ δ' οὕτω, 25
 πειρατέον τύπῳ γε περιλαβεῖν αὐτὸ τί ποτ' ἐστὶ
 4 καὶ τίνος τῶν ἐπιστημῶν ἢ δυνάμεων. δόξειε δ'
 ἂν τῆς κυριωτάτης καὶ μάλιστα ἀρχιτεκτονικῆς.
 5, 6 τοιαύτη δ' ἡ πολιτικὴ φαίνεται· τίνας γὰρ εἶναι
 χρεῶν τῶν ἐπιστημῶν ἐν ταῖς πόλεσι, καὶ ποίας 1094b
 ἐκάστους μαθάνειν καὶ μέχρι τίνος, αὕτη διατάσ-
 σει· ὁρῶμεν δὲ καὶ τὰς ἐντιμοτάτας τῶν δυνάμεων
 ὑπὸ ταύτην οὔσας, οἷον στρατηγικὴν οἰκονο-

¹ δὴ ΓΜ^b: δέ.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. i. 4—ii. 6

- similarly other arts to different arts again—in all these cases, I say, the ends of the master arts are things more to be desired than the ends of the arts subordinate to them ; since the latter ends are only
- 5 pursued for the sake of the former. (And it makes no difference whether the ends of the pursuits are the activities themselves or some other thing beside these, as in the case of the sciences mentioned.)
- ii If therefore among the ends at which our actions The ultimate End, which is the Supreme Good, is the End of Political Science. aim there be one which we will for its own sake, while we will the others only for the sake of this, and if we do not choose everything for the sake of something else (which would obviously result in a process *ad infinitum*, so that all desire would be futile and vain), it is clear that this one ultimate End must
- 2 be the Good, and indeed the Supreme Good. Will not then a knowledge of this Supreme Good be also of great practical importance for the conduct of life ? Will it not better enable us to attain our proper
- 3 object, like archers having a target to aim at ? If this be so, we ought to make an attempt to comprehend at all events in outline what exactly this Supreme Good is, and of which of the sciences or
- faculties it is the object.
- 4 Now it would seem that this supreme End must be the object of the most authoritative of the sciences—some science which is pre-eminently a master-
- 5 craft. But such is manifestly the science of Politics ;
- 6 for it is this that ordains which of the sciences are to exist in states, and what branches of knowledge the different classes of the citizens are to learn, and up to what point ; and we observe that even the most highly esteemed of the faculties, such as strategy, domestic economy, oratory, are subordinate to the

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7 μικρὴν ῥητορικὴν. χρωμένης δὴ¹ ταύτης ταῖς
 λοιπαῖς [πρακτικαῖς]² τῶν ἐπιστημῶν, ἔτι δὲ⁵
 νομοθετοῦσης τί δεῖ πράττειν καὶ τίνων ἀπέχε-
 σθαι, τὸ ταύτης τέλος περιέχει ἀνὰ τὰ τῶν ἄλλων,
 8 ὥστε τοῦτ' ἀνὰ εἴη τὰνθρώπινον ἀγαθόν. εἰ γὰρ
 καὶ ταῦτόν ἐστιν ἐνὶ καὶ πόλει, μείζον γὰρ καὶ
 τελείωτερον τὸ τῆς πόλεως φαίνεται καὶ λαβεῖν καὶ
 σῶζειν· ἀγαπητόν μὲν γὰρ καὶ ἐνὶ μόνῳ, κάλλιον¹⁰
 δὲ καὶ θειότερον ἔθνει καὶ πόλεσιν. ἡ μὲν οὖν
 μέθοδος τούτων ἐφίεται, πολιτικὴ τις οὕσα.

iii Λέγοιτο δ' ἀνὰ ἱκανῶς εἰ κατὰ τὴν ὑποκειμέ-
 νην ὕλην διασαφεινῆ· τὸ γὰρ ἀκριβὲς οὐχ ὁμοίως
 ἐν ἅπασιν τοῖς λόγοις ἐπιζητητέον, ὥσπερ οὐδ' ἐν
 2 τοῖς δημιουργουμένοις. τὰ δὲ καλὰ καὶ τὰ δίκαια,
 περὶ ὧν ἡ πολιτικὴ σκοπεῖται, πολλὴν³ ἔχει δια-¹⁵
 φορὰν καὶ πλάνην, ὥστε δοκεῖν νόμῳ μόνον εἶναι,
 3 φύσει δὲ μή. τοιαύτην δὲ τινα πλάνην ἔχει καὶ
 τὰγαθὰ, διὰ τὸ πολλοῖς συμβαίνειν βλάβας ἀπ'
 αὐτῶν· ἥδη γάρ τινες ἀπώλοντο διὰ πλοῦτον,
 4 ἕτεροι δὲ δι' ἀνδρείαν. ἀγαπητόν οὖν περὶ τοιούτων
 καὶ ἐκ τοιούτων λέγοντας παχυλῶς καὶ τύπῳ²⁰
 τὰληθὲς ἐνδείκνυσθαι, καὶ περὶ τῶν ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ

¹ δὴ ed. : δέ.

² Bywater.

³ πολλὴν Asp. : τοσαύτην.

^a καλόν is a term of admiration applied to what is correct, especially (1) actions well done (see iii. vii. 6), and (2) bodies well shaped and works of art or handicraft well made; it thus means (1) morally right, (2) beautiful. For the analogy between moral and material correctness see ii. vi. 9.

7 political science. Inasmuch then as the rest of the sciences are employed by this one, and as it moreover lays down laws as to what people shall do and what things they shall refrain from doing, the end of this science must include the ends of all the others. Therefore, the Good of man must be the
8 end of the science of Politics. For even though it be the case that the Good is the same for the individual and for the state, nevertheless, the good of the state is manifestly a greater and more perfect good, both to attain and to preserve. To secure the good of one person only is better than nothing; but to secure the good of a nation or a state is a nobler and more divine achievement.

This then being its aim, our investigation is in a sense the study of Politics.

iii Now our treatment of this science will be adequate, if it achieves that amount of precision which belongs to its subject matter. The same exactness must not be expected in all departments of philosophy alike, any more than in all the products of the arts and crafts. The subjects studied by political science are Moral Nobility^a and
•Justice; but these conceptions involve much difference of opinion and uncertainty, so that they are sometimes believed to be mere conventions and to
3 have no real existence in the nature of things. And a similar uncertainty surrounds the conception of the Good, because it frequently occurs that good things have harmful consequences: people have before now been ruined by wealth, and in other cases courage
4 has cost men their lives. We must therefore be content if, in dealing with subjects and starting from premises thus uncertain, we succeed in presenting a

Political
Science not
an exact
Science.

πολὺ καὶ ἐκ τοιούτων λέγοντας τοιαῦτα καὶ συμπεραίνεσθαι. τὸν αὐτὸν δὴ¹ τρόπον καὶ ἀποδέχεσθαι χρῶν ἕκαστον τῶν λεγομένων· πεπαιδευμένου γὰρ ἔστιν ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον τὰκριβὲς ἐπιζητεῖν καθ' ἕκαστον γένος ἐφ' ὅσον ἢ τοῦ πράγματος φύσις ἐπιδέχεται· 25 παραπλήσιον γὰρ φαίνεται μαθηματικοῦ τε πιθανολογοῦντος ἀποδέχεσθαι καὶ ῥητορικὸν ἀποδείξεισ ἀπαιτεῖν.

- 5 Ἐκαστος δὲ κρίνει καλῶς ἃ γινώσκει, καὶ τούτων ἔστιν ἀγαθὸς κριτής. καθ' ἕκαστον ἄρα ὁ 1095: πεπαιδευμένος, ἀπλῶς δ' ὁ περὶ πᾶν πεπαιδευμένος. διὸ τῆς πολιτικῆς οὐκ ἔστιν οἰκείος ἀκροατῆς ὁ νέος· ἄπειρος γὰρ τῶν κατὰ τὸν βίον πράξεων, οἱ
6 λόγοι δ' ἐκ τούτων καὶ περὶ τούτων. ἔτι δὲ τοῖς πάθεσιν ἀκολουθητικὸς ὢν ματαίως ἀκούσεται καὶ 5 ἀνωφελῶς, ἐπειδὴ τὸ τέλος ἔστιν οὐ γνώσις ἀλλὰ
7 πρᾶξις. διαφέρει δ' οὐδὲν νέος τὴν ἡλικίαν ἢ τὸ ἦθος νεαρός, οὐ γὰρ παρὰ τὸν χρόνον ἢ ἔλλειψις, ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ κατὰ πάθος ζῆν καὶ διώκειν ἕκαστα· τοῖς γὰρ τοιούτοις ἀνόνητος ἢ γνώσις γίνεται, καθάπερ τοῖς ἀκρατέσιν. τοῖς δὲ κατὰ λόγον τὰς¹⁰ ὀρέξεις ποιουμένοις καὶ πράττουσι πολυωφελὲς ἂν
8 εἴη τὸ περὶ τούτων εἰδέναι. καὶ περὶ μὲν ἀκροατοῦ,

¹ δὲ O^b.

^a Quoted in *Troilus and Cressida*, II. II. 165.

^b The argument is, that even if the young could gain a knowledge of Ethics (which they cannot, because it requires experience of life), they would not use it as a guide to conduct, because they are led by their passions and appetites; and therefore the study is of no value for them, since Ethics, being a practical science, is only pursued for the sake of its practical application.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. iii. 4-8

rough outline of the truth : when our subjects and our premises are merely generalities, it is enough if we arrive at generally valid conclusions. Accordingly we may ask the student also to accept the various views we put forward in the same spirit ; for it is the mark of an educated mind to expect that amount of exactness in each kind which the nature of the particular subject admits. It is equally unreasonable to accept merely probable conclusions from a mathematician, and to demand strict demonstration from an orator.

- 5 Again, each man judges correctly those matters with which he is acquainted ; it is of these that he is a competent critic. To criticize a particular subject, therefore, a man must have been trained in that subject : to be a good critic generally, he must have had an all-round education. Hence the young are not fit to be students of Political Science.^a For they have no experience of life and conduct, and it is these that supply the premises and subject matter of this
6 branch of philosophy. And moreover they are led by their feelings ; so that they will study the subject to no purpose or advantage, since the end of this
7 science is not knowledge but action. And it makes no difference whether they are young in years or immature in character : the defect is not a question of time, it is because their life and its various aims are guided by feeling ; for to such persons their knowledge is of no use, any more than it is to persons of defective self-restraint.^b But Moral Science may be of great value to those who guide their desires and actions by principle.
- 8 Let so much suffice by way of introduction as to

Its study
is both
impossible
and useless
for the
young and
immature.

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- καὶ πῶς ἀποδεκτέον, καὶ τί προτιθέμεθα, πεφρο-
 μιάσθω τοσαῦτα.
- iv Λέγωμεν δ' ἀναλαβόντες, ἐπειδὴ πᾶσα γνώσις
 καὶ προαίρεσις ἀγαθοῦ τινὸς ὀρέγεται, τί ἐστὶν οὗ¹⁵
 λέγομεν τὴν πολιτικὴν ἐφίεσθαι καὶ τί τὸ πάντων
 2 ἀκρότατον τῶν πρακτῶν ἀγαθῶν. ὀνόματι μὲν οὖν
 σχεδὸν ὑπὸ τῶν πλείστων ὁμολογεῖται· τὴν γὰρ
 εὐδαιμονίαν καὶ οἱ πολλοὶ καὶ οἱ χαρίεντες λέγουσιν,
 τὸ δ' εὖ ζῆν καὶ τὸ εὖ πράττειν ταῦτόν ὑπολαμ-
 βάνουσι τῷ εὐδαιμονεῖν. περὶ δὲ τῆς εὐδαιμονίας,
 τί ἐστὶν, ἀμφισβητοῦσι, καὶ οὐχ ὁμοίως οἱ πολλοὶ
 3 τοῖς σοφοῖς ἀποδιδόασιν. οἱ μὲν γὰρ τῶν ἐναργῶν
 τι καὶ φανερῶν, οἷον ἡδονὴν ἢ πλοῦτον ἢ τιμὴν,
 ἄλλοι δ' ἄλλο—πολλάκις δὲ καὶ ὁ αὐτὸς ἕτερον,
 νοσήσας μὲν γὰρ ὑγίειαν, πενόμενος δὲ πλοῦτον.²⁵
 συνειδότες δ' ἑαυτοῖς ἄγνοϊαν τοὺς μέγα τι καὶ
 ὑπὲρ αὐτοὺς λέγοντας θαυμάζουσιν· ἐνιοὶ δ'¹ ὥντο
 παρὰ τὰ πολλὰ ταῦτα ἀγαθὰ ἄλλο τι καθ' αὐτὸ
 εἶναι, ὃ καὶ τούτοις πᾶσιν αἰτιόν ἐστι τοῦ εἶναι
 4 ἀγαθὰ. ἀπάσας μὲν οὖν ἐξετάζειν τὰς δόξας
 ματαιότερον ἴσως ἐστίν, ἱκανὸν δὲ τὰς μάλιστα
 ἐπιπολαζούσας ἢ δοκούσας ἔχειν τινὰ λόγον.³⁰
- 5 Μὴ λανθανέτω δ' ἡμᾶς ὅτι διαφέρουσιν οἱ ἀπὸ
- ¹ δ' : γὰρ Spengel.

^a This translation of εὐδαιμονία can hardly be avoided, but it would perhaps be more accurately rendered by 'Well-being' or 'Prosperity'; and it will be found that the writer does not interpret it as a state of feeling but as a kind of activity.

^b The English phrase preserves the ambiguity of the Greek, which in its ordinary acceptation rather means 'faring well' than 'acting well,' though in the sequel Aristotle diverts it to the active sense.

^c Viz. Plato and the Academy; see c. vi.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. iii. 8—iv. 5

the student of the subject, the spirit in which our conclusions are to be received, and the object that we set before us.

- iv To resume, inasmuch as all studies and undertakings are directed to the attainment of some good, let us discuss what it is that we pronounce to be the aim of Politics, that is, what is the highest of all the goods that action can achieve. As far as the name goes, we may almost say that the great majority of mankind are agreed about this; for both the multitude and persons of refinement speak of it as Happiness,^a and conceive 'the good life' or 'doing well'^b to be the same thing as 'being happy.' But what constitutes happiness is a matter of dispute; and the popular account of it is not the same as that given by the philosophers. Ordinary people identify it with some obvious and visible good, such as pleasure or wealth or honour—some say one thing and some another, indeed very often the same man says different things at different times: when he falls sick he thinks health is happiness, when he is poor, wealth. At other times, feeling conscious of their own ignorance, men admire those who propound something grand and above their heads; and it has been held by some thinkers^c that beside the many good things we have mentioned, there exists another Good, that is good in itself, and stands to all those goods as the cause of their being good.
- 4 Now perhaps it would be a somewhat fruitless task to review all the different opinions that are held. It will suffice to examine those which are most widely accepted, or which seem to be supported by some measure of reason.
- 5 And we must not overlook the distinction between

cc. iv-vii.
The nature
of Happi-
ness.
c iv.
Current
views
stated.

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τῶν ἀρχῶν λόγοι καὶ οἱ ἐπὶ τὰς ἀρχάς. εὖ γὰρ καὶ Πλάτων ἡπόρει τοῦτο, καὶ ἐζήτει πότερον ἀπὸ τῶν ἀρχῶν ἢ ἐπὶ τὰς ἀρχάς ἐστιν ἡ ὁδός, ὥσπερ ἐν τῷ σταδίῳ ἀπὸ τῶν ἀθλοθετῶν ἐπὶ τὸ πέρασ ἢ 1095 ἡ ἀνάπαλιν. ἀρκτέον μὲν οὖν ἀπὸ τῶν γνωρίμων. ταῦτα δὲ διττῶς, τὰ μὲν γὰρ ἡμῖν τὰ δ' ἀπλῶς· ἴσως οὖν ἡμῖν γε ἀρκτέον ἀπὸ τῶν ἡμῖν γνωρίμων.

6 διὸ δεῖ τοῖς ἔθεσιν ἡχθαι καλῶς τὸν περὶ καλῶν καὶ 5
δικαίων καὶ ὅλως τῶν πολιτικῶν ἀκουσόμενον
7 ἱκανῶς. ἀρχὴ γὰρ τὸ ὅτι· καὶ εἰ τοῦτο φαίνοιτο
ἀρκούντως, οὐδὲν προσδεήσει τοῦ διότι. ὁ δὲ
τοιούτος ἢ ἔχει ἢ λάβοι ἂν ἀρχὰς ῥαδίως. ᾧ δὲ
μηδέτερον ὑπάρχει τούτων, ἀκουσάτω τῶν
Ἑσιόδου·

οὗτος μὲν πανάριστος ὃς αὐτὸς πάντα νοήσῃ, 10
ἐσθλὸς δ' αὖ κακείνος ὃς εὖ εἰπόντι πίθῃται·
ὃς δέ κε μήτ' αὐτὸς νοέῃ μήτ' ἄλλου ἀκούων
ἐν θυμῷ βάλλῃται, ὁ δ' αὖτ' ἀχρήϊος ἀνὴρ.

ν Ἡμεῖς δὲ λέγωμεν ὅθεν παρεξέβημεν. τὸ γὰρ
ἀγαθὸν καὶ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν οὐκ ἀλόγως εἰκόασιν 15
ἐκ τῶν βίων ὑπολαμβάνειν οἱ μὲν πολλοὶ καὶ
2 φορτικώτατοι τὴν ἡδονήν· διὸ καὶ τὸν βίον ἀγαπῶσι
τὸν ἀπολαυστικόν—τρεῖς γάρ εἰσι μάλιστα οἱ πρὸς—

^a In contrast apparently with the school of Plato.

^b *Works and Days*, 293 ff.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. iv. 5—v. 2

arguments that start from first principles and those that lead to first principles. This is a matter that was rightly raised by Plato, who used to enquire whether the true procedure is to start from or to lead up to one's first principles, as in a race-course one may run from the judges to the far end of the track or the reverse. Now no doubt it is proper to start from the known. But 'the known' has two meanings—'what is familiar to us,' which is one thing, and 'what is intelligible in itself,' which is another. Perhaps then for us ^a at all events it is 6 proper to start from what is known to us. This is why in order to be a competent student of the Right and Just, and in short of the topics of Politics in general, the pupil is bound to have had a right moral up- 7 bringing. For the starting-point or first principle is the fact that a thing is so; if this be satisfactorily ascertained, there will be no need also to know the reason why it is so. And the man of good moral training knows first principles already, or can easily acquire them. As for the person who neither knows nor can learn, let him hear the words of Hesiod ^b :

Best is the man who can himself advise ;
 He too is good who hearkens to the wise ;
 But who, himself being witless, will not heed
 Another's wisdom, is a fool indeed.

v But let us continue from the point where 'we digressed. To judge from the recognized types of Lives, the more or less reasoned conceptions of the Good or Happiness that prevail are the following. On the one hand the generality of men and the most vulgar identify the Good with pleasure, 2 and accordingly look no higher than the Life of Enjoyment—for there are three specially prominent

Inductive
method
justified.

Current
views of
the Good
inferred
from typical
Lives.
The Life of
Enjoyment.

χοντες, ὃ τε νῦν εἰρημένος καὶ ὁ πολιτικός καὶ
 3 τρίτος ὁ θεωρητικός. οἱ μὲν οὖν πολλοὶ παντελῶς
 ἀνδραποδώδεις φαίνονται βοσκημάτων βίον προ- 20
 αιρούμενοι, τυγχάνουσι δὲ λόγον διὰ τὸ πολλοὺς
 τῶν ἐν ταῖς ἐξουσίαις ὁμοιοπαθεῖν Σαρδαναπάλλω.
 4 οἱ δὲ χαρίεντες καὶ πρακτικοὶ τιμὴν· τοῦ γὰρ πο-
 λιτικοῦ βίου σχεδὸν τοῦτο τέλος. φαίνεται δ'
 ἐπιπολαιότερον εἶναι τοῦ ζητουμένου· δοκεῖ γὰρ
 ἐν τοῖς τιμῶσι μᾶλλον εἶναι ἢ ἐν τῷ τιμωμένῳ, 25
 τὰγαθὸν δὲ οἰκεῖόν τι καὶ δυσφαίρετον εἶναι
 5 μαντευόμεθα. ἔτι δ' εἰκόασι τὴν τιμὴν διώκειν
 ἵνα πιστεύσωσιν ἑαυτοὺς ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι· ζητοῦσι
 γοῦν ὑπὸ τῶν φρονίμων τιμᾶσθαι καὶ παρ' οἷς
 γινώσκονται, καὶ ἐπ' ἀρετῇ. δῆλον οὖν ὅτι κατὰ
 6 γε τούτους ἡ ἀρετὴ κρείττων· τάχα δὲ καὶ μᾶλλον 30
 ἂν τις τέλος τοῦ πολιτικοῦ βίου ταύτην ὑπολάβοι.
 φαίνεται δὲ ἀτελεστέρα καὶ αὕτη· δοκεῖ γὰρ
 ἐνδέχεσθαι καὶ καθεύδειν ἔχοντα τὴν ἀρετὴν ἢ
 ἀπρακτεῖν διὰ βίου, καὶ πρὸς τούτοις κακοπαθεῖν 1096a
 καὶ ἀτυχεῖν τὰ μέγιστα· τὸν δ' οὕτω ζῶντα οὐδεὶς

^a The doctrine of the three Lives goes back to Pythagoras, who compared the three kinds of men to the three classes of strangers who went to the Games, traders, competitors, and spectators (Iamblichus, *Vit. Pythag.* 58). This apologue brings out the metaphor underlying the phrase *θεωρητικὸς βίος*, lit. 'the life of the spectator' (Burnet).

^b A mythical Assyrian king; two versions of his epitaph are recorded by Athenaeus (336, 530), one containing the words *ἔσθιε, πίνε, παῖζε*· ὡς τὰλλα τούτου οὐκ ἄξια τοῦ ἀποκροτήματος, 'Eat, drink, play, since all else is not worth this snap of the fingers'; the other ends *κεῖν' ἔχω ὅσσ' ἔφαγον καὶ ἐφύβρισα καὶ μετ' ἔρωτος | τέραν' ἔπαθον*· τὰ δὲ πολλὰ καὶ ὀλβια πάντα λέλυνται, 'What I ate, I have, and the delightful deeds

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. v. 2-6

Lives,^a the one just mentioned, the Life of Politics,
 3 and thirdly, the Life of Contemplation. The gener-
 ality of mankind then show themselves to be utterly
 slavish, by preferring what is only a life for cattle ;
 but they get a hearing for their view as reasonable
 because many persons of high position share the
 feelings of Sardanapallus.^b

4 Men of refinement, on the other hand, and men The Life of
Action.
 of action think that the Good is honour—for this may
 be said to be the end of the Life of Politics. But
 honour after all seems too superficial to be the
 Good, for which we are seeking ; since it appears to
 depend on those who confer it more than on him
 upon whom it is conferred, whereas we instinctively
 feel that the Good must be something proper to its
 possessor and not easy to be taken away from him.
 5 Moreover men's motive in pursuing honour seems to
 be to assure themselves of their own merit ; at least
 they seek to be honoured by men of judgement and
 by people who know them, that is, they desire to be
 honoured on the ground of virtue. It is clear there-
 fore that in the opinion at all events of men of action,
 6 virtue is a greater good than honour ; and one might
 perhaps accordingly suppose that virtue rather than
 • honour is the end of the Political Life. But even
 virtue proves on examination to be too incomplete
 to be the End ; since it appears possible to possess
 it while you are asleep, or without putting it into
 practice throughout the whole of your life ; and also
 for the virtuous man to suffer the greatest misery
 and misfortune—though no one would pronounce a
 man living a life of misery to be happy, unless for
 of wantonness and love which I did and suffered ; whereas
 all my wealth is gone.'

ARISTOTLE

ἂν εὐδαιμονίσειεν, εἰ μὴ θέσιν διαφυλάττων. καὶ
 περὶ μὲν τούτων ἄλλῃς· ἱκανῶς γὰρ καὶ ἐν τοῖς
 7 ἐγκυκλίοις εἴρηται περὶ αὐτῶν. τρίτος δ' ἐστὶν ὁ
 θεωρητικός, ὑπὲρ¹ οὗ τὴν ἐπίσκεψιν ἐν τοῖς ἐπο-
 8 μένοις ποιησόμεθα. ὁ δὲ χρηματιστὴς βίαιός² τις
 ἐστίν, καὶ ὁ πλούτος δῆλον ὅτι οὐ τὸ ζητούμενον
 ἀγαθόν· χρήσιμον γὰρ καὶ ἄλλου χάριν. διὸ μᾶλλον
 τὰ πρότερον λεχθέντα τέλη τις ἂν ὑπολάβοι· δι'
 αὐτὰ γὰρ ἀγαπᾶται. φαίνεται δ' οὐδ' ἐκεῖνα· καίτοι
 πολλοὶ λόγοι πρὸς αὐτὰ καταβέβληνται. ταῦτα μὲν 10
 οὖν ἀφείσθω.

- vi Τὸ δὲ καθόλου βέλτιον ἴσως ἐπισκέψασθαι καὶ
 διαπορῆσαι πῶς λέγεται, καίπερ προσάντους τῆς
 τοιαύτης ζητήσεως γνωμένης διὰ τὸ φίλους ἀνδρας
 εἰσαγαγεῖν τὰ εἶδη. δόξειε δ' ἂν ἴσως βέλτιον
 εἶναι, καὶ δεῖν ἐπὶ σωτηρίᾳ γε τῆς ἀληθείας καὶ τὰ 15
 οἰκεία ἀναιρεῖν, ἄλλως τε καὶ φιλοσόφους ὄντας·
 ἀμφοῖν γὰρ ὄντων φίλον ὅσιον προτιμᾶν τὴν ἀλή-
 2 θειαν. οἱ δὲ³ κομίσαντες τὴν δόξαν ταύτην οὐκ
 ἐποιοῦν ιδέας ἐν οἷς τὸ πρότερον καὶ ὕστερον⁴

¹ περὶ Bekker.

³ δὴ codd. Morellii : δὲ.

² βαιός Asp.

⁴ τὸ ὕστερον Mb. c

^a It is not certain whether this phrase refers to written treatises (whether Aristotle's own dialogues and other popular works, now lost, or those of other philosophers), or to philosophical debates like those which Plato's dialogues purport to report (as did doubtless those of Aristotle). Cf. *De caelo* 279 a 30 ἐν τοῖς ἐγκυκλίοις φιλοσοφήμασι, 'in the ordinary philosophical discussions,' and *De anima* 407 b 29 τοῖς ἐν κοινῷ γινόμενοις λόγοις, 'the discussions that go on in public'; and see c. xiii. §.9 note for similar references to 'extraneous discussions.'

the sake of maintaining a paradox. But we need not pursue this subject, since it has been sufficiently treated in the ordinary discussions.^a

- 7 The third type of life is the Life of Contemplation, which we shall consider in the sequel. The Life of Contemplation (Bk. X. vii). The Life of Money-making.
- 8 The Life of Money-making is a hard ^b kind of life; and clearly wealth is not the Good we are in search of, for it is only good as being useful, a means to something else. On this score indeed one might conceive the ends before mentioned to have a better claim, for they are approved for their own sakes. But even they do not really seem to be the Supreme Good; however, many arguments against them have been disseminated, so we may dismiss them.

vi But perhaps it is desirable that we should examine the notion of a Universal Good, and review the difficulties that it involves, although such an enquiry goes against the grain because of our friendship for the authors of the Theory of Ideas. Still perhaps it would appear desirable, and indeed it would seem to be obligatory, especially for a philosopher, to sacrifice even one's closest personal ties in defence of the truth. Both are dear to us, but it is a sacred duty to put truth first. Plato's Idea of Good refuted as basis for Ethics.

2 The originators of this theory, then, used not to postulate Ideas of groups of things in which they posited^c an order of priority and posteriority^d (for (1) Idea of Good disapproved by Doctrine of Categories: (a) 'Good' denotes a thing, or a quality of a thing, or its

^b Literally 'violent'; the adjective is applied to the strict diet and laborious exercises of athletes, and to physical phenomena such as motion, in the sense of 'constrained' not 'natural.' The text here has been suspected.

^c Perhaps 'we posit.'

^d A is 'prior in nature' (though not necessarily in time) to B, when A can exist without B but not B without A; and they cannot then be on a par as members of one class.

ARISTOTLE

ἔλεγον¹ (διόπερ οὐδὲ τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἰδέαν κατ-
 εσκευάζον). τὸ δ' ἀγαθὸν λέγεται καὶ ἐν τῷ τί ἐστι ³⁰
 καὶ ἐν τῷ ποιῶ καὶ ἐν τῷ πρὸς τι· τὸ δὲ καθ'
 αὐτὸ καὶ ἡ οὐσία πρότερον τῇ φύσει τοῦ πρὸς τι
 (παραφυσάδι γὰρ τοῦτ' ἔοικε καὶ συμβεβηκότι τοῦ
 ὄντος, ὥστ' οὐκ ἂν εἴη κοινή τις ἐπὶ τούτοις² ἰδέα.
 3 ἔτι ἐπεὶ τὰγαθὸν ἰσαχῶς λέγεται τῷ ὄντι (καὶ γὰρ
 ἐν τῷ τί λέγεται, οἷον ὁ θεὸς καὶ ὁ νοῦς, καὶ ἐν τῷ ²⁵
 ποιῶ αἱ ἀρεταί, καὶ ἐν τῷ ποσῷ τὸ μέτριον, καὶ ἐν
 τῷ πρὸς τι τὸ χρήσιμον, καὶ ἐν χρόνῳ καιρὸς, καὶ
 ἐν τόπῳ δίαίτα, καὶ ἕτερα τοιαῦτα), δῆλον ὥς οὐκ
 ἂν εἴη κοινόν τι καθόλου καὶ ἔν· οὐ γὰρ ἂν ἐλέγετ'
 ἐν πάσαις ταῖς κατηγορίαις, ἀλλ' ἐν μιᾷ μόνῃ.
 4 ἔτι δ' ἐπεὶ τῶν κατὰ μίαν ἰδέαν μία καὶ ἐπιστήμη,
 καὶ τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἀπάντων ἦν ἂν μία τις ἐπιστήμη· ³⁰
 νῦν δ' εἰσὶ πολλαὶ καὶ τῶν ὑπὸ μίαν κατηγορίαν,
 οἷον καιροῦ, ἐν πολέμῳ μὲν γὰρ³ στρατηγικὴ ἐν
 νόσῳ δ' ἰατρικὴ, καὶ τοῦ μετρίου ἐν τροφῇ μὲν
 5 ἰατρικὴ ἐν πόνοις δὲ γυμναστικὴ. ἀπορήσειε δ'
 ἂν τις τί ποτε καὶ βούλονται λέγειν αὐτοέκαστον,
 εἴπερ ἔν τε αὐτοανθρώπῳ καὶ ἀνθρώπῳ εἰς καὶ ὁ ^{1096b}

¹ ἐλέγομεν K^b: fort. λέγομεν ed.

² τούτων L^b.

³ γὰρ om. L^b.

^a Lit. 'that which is by itself.'

^b δίαίτα is used of the habitat of a species of animals, *De mundo* 398 b 32; though it has been taken here to mean 'a favourable climate' for human beings. In Aristoph. *Ran.* 114 it may mean 'a lodging,' and later it denotes an apart-
18

which reason they did not construct an Idea of numbers in general). But Good is predicated alike in the Categories of Substance, of Quality, and of Relation; yet the Absolute,^a or Substance, is prior in nature to the Relative, which seems to be a sort of offshoot or 'accident' of Substance; so that there cannot be a common Idea corresponding to the absolutely good and the relatively good.

- 3 Again, the word 'good' is used in as many senses as the word 'is'; for we may predicate good in the Category of Substance, for instance of God, or intelligence; in that of Quality, of the virtues; in that of Quantity, of the due amount; in that of Relation, of the useful; in that of Time, of a favourable opportunity; in that of Place, of a suitable 'habitat'^b; and so on. So clearly good cannot be a single and universal general notion; if it were, it would not be predicable in all the Categories, but only in one.
- 4 Again, things that come under a single Idea must be objects of a single science; hence there ought to be a single science dealing with all good things. But as a matter of fact there are a number of sciences even for the goods in one Category, for example, opportunity: for opportunity in war comes under the science of strategy, in disease under that of medicine; and the due amount in diet comes under medicine, in bodily exercise under gymnastics.
- 5 One might also raise the question what precisely they mean by their expression 'the Ideal so-and-so,'^c seeing that one and the same definition of man applies both to 'the Ideal man' and to ment or suite of rooms, as in Pliny's descriptions of Italian villas.

relation to another thing; but the last notion is secondary, and cannot be classed with the first under one Idea.

(b) 'Good' may mean 'a good thing,' 'excellent,' 'enough,' 'useful,' 'opportune,' 'healthy,' etc.: but these are not a single notion.

(c) Good even in one category is the object of several sciences.

(11) The Idea of Good superfluous, being the same in essence as the concept 'good.'

^a Literally 'so-and-so itself.'

ARISTOTLE

- αὐτὸς λόγος ἐστὶν ὁ τοῦ ἀνθρώπου· ἡ γὰρ
 ἄνθρωπος, οὐδὲν διοίσουσιν· εἰ δ' οὕτως, οὐδ' ἡ
 6 ἀγαθόν. ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ τῷ ἄττιον εἶναι μάλλον
 ἀγαθὸν ἔσται, εἴπερ μηδὲ λευκότερον τὸ πολυ-
 χρόνιον τοῦ ἐφήμερου. 5
- 7 Πιθανώτερον δ' εἰκόασιν οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι λέγειν
 περὶ αὐτοῦ, τιθέντες ἐν τῇ τῶν ἀγαθῶν συστοιχίᾳ
 τὸ ἐν· οἷς δὴ καὶ Σπεύσιππος ἐπακολουθήσαι
 δοκεῖ. ἀλλὰ περὶ μὲν τούτων ἄλλος ἔστω λόγος.
- 8 Τοῖς δὲ λεχθεῖσιν ἀμφισβήτησις τις ὑποφαίνεται
 διὰ τὸ μὴ περὶ παντὸς ἀγαθοῦ τοὺς λόγους εἰρῆσθαι,¹ 10
 λέγεσθαι δὲ καθ' ἐν εἶδος τὰ καθ' αὐτὰ διωκόμενα
 καὶ ἀγαπώμενα, τὰ δὲ ποιητικὰ τούτων ἢ φυλα-
 κτικὰ πως ἢ τῶν ἐναντίων κωλυτικὰ διὰ ταῦτα
 9 λέγεσθαι καὶ τρόπον ἄλλον. δῆλον οὖν ὅτι διττῶς
 λέγοιτ' ἂν τὰγαθὰ, καὶ τὰ μὲν καθ' αὐτά, θάτερα
 δὲ διὰ ταῦτα· χωρίσαντες οὖν ἀπὸ τῶν ὠφελίμων 15
 τὰ καθ' αὐτὰ σκεψώμεθα εἰ λέγεται κατὰ μίαν

¹ ποιεῖσθαι K^b.

^a i.e. 'the ordinary notion of man'—the concept of man in general which we form from our experience of particular men, but do not regard as a thing existing independently of them—; or perhaps 'a particular man,' but this seems to require ἀνθρώπων τινί or τῷδε.

^b This parenthetical note might come better after § 4 (Burnet, *Cl. Rev.* iii. 198). The Pythagoreans, instead of (like Plato) saying the Good was one, more wisely said the One was good (or akin to the good). Some of them (*Met.* A, 986 a 22) taught that there were ten pairs of opposing principles, which they ranged in two columns—limit and the unlimited, odd and even, unity and plurality, right and left, male and female, resting and moving, straight and crooked, light and darkness, good and bad, square and oblong. They also held (*Met.* A, 1072 b 32) that good and beauty were not original, but appeared in the course of the evolu-
 20

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vi. 5-9

'man,'^a for in so far as both are man, there will be no difference between them; and if so, no more will there be any difference between 'the Ideal Good' and 'Good' in so far as both are good.

6 Nor yet will the Ideal Good be any more good because it is eternal, seeing that a white thing that lasts a long time is no whiter than one that lasts only a day. Its eternity does not affect its essence.

7 The Pythagoreans^b seem to give a more probable doctrine on the subject of the Good when they place Unity in their column of goods; and indeed Speusippus^c appears to have followed them. But this subject must be left for another discussion. (The Pythagorean view.)

8 We can descry an objection that may be raised against our arguments on the ground that the theory in question was not intended to apply to every sort of good, and that only things pursued and accepted for their own sake are pronounced good as belonging to a single species, while things productive or preservative of these in any way, or preventive of their opposites, are said to be good as a means to these, and in a different sense. Clearly then the term (iii, supplementing i a)
The Idea of Good does not even apply to things good in themselves (if any), since even they are good in different ways;

9 'goods' would have two meanings, (1) things good in themselves and (2) things good as a means to these; let us then separate things good in themselves from things useful as means, and consider whether the former are called good because they

tion of the world; hence perhaps the late position of good in the list of opposites. The phrase 'column of goods' (*cf. Met. N*, 1093 b 12 'column of the beautiful') is inexact, as good was only one of the things in the column—unless it means the column to which good things among others belong; but doubtless all the positive principles were regarded as akin.

^c Speusippus was Plato's nephew, and succeeded him as head of the Academy.

ARISTOTLE

- 10 *ιδέαν. καθ' αὐτὰ δὲ ποῖα θείη τις ἄν; ἢ ὅσα καὶ
μονούμενα διώκεται, οἷον τὸ φρονεῖν καὶ ὁρᾶν καὶ
ἡδοναί τινες καὶ τιμαί; ταῦτα γὰρ εἰ καὶ δι' ἄλλο
τι διώκομεν, ὁμῶς τῶν καθ' αὐτὰ ἀγαθῶν θείη τις
ἄν. ἢ οὐδ' ἄλλο οὐδὲν πλὴν τῆς ιδέας; ὥστε* 20
- 11 *μάταιον ἔσται τὸ εἶδος. εἰ δὲ καὶ ταῦτ' ἔστι τῶν
καθ' αὐτά, τὸν τὰγαθοῦ λόγον ἐν ἅπασιν αὐτοῖς τὸν
αὐτὸν ἐμφαίνεσθαι δεήσει, καθάπερ ἐν χιόνι καὶ
ψιμυθίῳ τὸν τῆς λευκότητος. τιμῆς δὲ καὶ φρο-
νήσεως καὶ ἡδονῆς ἕτεροι καὶ διαφέροντες οἱ λόγοι
ταύτη ἢ ἀγαθά. οὐκ ἔστιν ἄρα τὸ ἀγαθὸν κοινόν* 25
τι κατὰ μίαν ιδέαν.
- 12 *Ἀλλὰ πῶς δὴ λέγεται; οὐ γὰρ ἔοικε τοῖς γε ἀπὸ
τύχης ὁμωνύμοις. ἀλλ' ἄρά γε τῷ ἀφ' ἐνὸς εἶναι;
ἢ πρὸς ἓν ἅπαντα συντελεῖν; ἢ μᾶλλον κατ' ἀνα-
λογίαν; ὥς γὰρ ἐν σώματι ὄψις, ἐν ψυχῇ νοῦς, καὶ*
- 13 *ἄλλο δὴ ἐν ἄλλῳ. ἀλλ' ἴσως ταῦτα μὲν ἀφετέον* 30
*τὸ νῦν· ἐξακριβοῦν γὰρ ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν ἄλλης ἂν εἴη
φιλοσοφίας οἰκειότερον. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ τῆς
ιδέας· εἰ γὰρ καὶ ἔστιν ἓν τι τὸ¹ κοινῇ κατηγορού-
μενον ἀγαθὸν ἢ χωριστὸν αὐτό τι² καθ' αὐτό, δηλὸν*

¹ τὸ : καὶ K^b.

² τι αὐτὸ L^b.

^a *i.e.*, the species or class of things good in themselves will be a class to which nothing belongs (for the Idea is not *in* the class).

^b The writer's own solution : when different things are called good, it means they each bear the same relation to (*viz.* contribute to the welfare of) certain other things, not all to the same thing.

^c *i.e.*, First Philosophy or Metaphysics.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vi. 10-13

- 10 fall under a single Idea. But what sort of things is one to class as good in themselves? Are they not those things which are sought after even without any accessory advantage, such as wisdom, sight, and certain pleasures and honours? for even if we also pursue these things as means to something else, still one would class them among things good in themselves. Or is there nothing else good in itself except the Idea? If so, the species will be of no
- 11 use.^a If on the contrary the class of things good in themselves includes these objects, the same notion of good ought to be manifested in all of them, just as the same notion of white is manifested in snow and in white paint. But as a matter of fact the notions of honour and wisdom and pleasure, as being good, are different and distinct. Therefore, good is not a general term corresponding to a single Idea.
- 12 But in what sense then are different things called good? For they do not seem to be a case of things that bear the same name merely by chance. Possibly things are called good in virtue of being derived from one good; or because they all contribute to one good. Or perhaps it is rather by way of a proportion^b: that is, as sight is good in the body, so intelligence is good in the soul, and similarly another thing in something else.
- 13 Perhaps however this question must be dismissed (iv) The Idea of Good not relevant to Ethics, since a transcendent good is unattainable, for the present, since a detailed investigation of it belongs more properly to another branch of philosophy.^c And likewise with the Idea of the Good; for if the goodness predicated of various things in common actually is a unity or something existing separately and absolute, it clearly will not be practi-

ARISTOTLE

- ὥς οὐκ ἂν εἴη πρακτὸν οὐδὲ κτητὸν ἀνθρώπων· νῦν
 14 δὲ τοιοῦτόν τι ζητεῖται. τάχα δέ τω δόξειεν ἂν
 βέλτιον εἶναι γνωρίζειν αὐτὸ πρὸς τὰ κτητὰ καὶ 1097
 πρακτὰ τῶν ἀγαθῶν· οἷον γὰρ παράδειγμα τοῦτ'
 ἔχοντες μᾶλλον εἰσόμεθα καὶ τὰ ἡμῖν ἀγαθὰ, καὶ
 15 εἰδῶμεν, ἐπιτευξόμεθα αὐτῶν. πιθανότητα μὲν
 οὖν ἔχει τινὰ ὁ λόγος, ἔοικε δὲ ταῖς ἐπιστήμαις
 διαφωνεῖν· πᾶσαι γὰρ ἀγαθοῦ τινὸς ἐφιέμεναι καὶ 5
 τὸ ἐνδεὲς ἐπιζητοῦσαι παραλείπουσι τὴν γνώσιν
 αὐτοῦ· καίτοι βοήθημα τηλικούτου τοὺς τεχνίτας
 ἅπαντας ἀγνοεῖν καὶ μὴδ' ἐπιζητεῖν οὐκ εὐλογον.
 16 ἄπορον δὲ καὶ τί ὠφεληθήσεται ὑφάντης ἢ τέκτων
 πρὸς τὴν αὐτοῦ τέχνην εἰδὼς αὐτὸ τὸ ἀγαθόν,¹ ἢ
 πῶς ἰατρικώτερος ἢ στρατηγικώτερος ἔσται ὁ τὴν 10
 ἰδέαν αὐτὴν τεθεαμένος. φαίνεται μὲν γὰρ οὐδὲ
 τὴν ὑγίειαν οὕτως ἐπισκοπεῖν ὁ ἰατρός, ἀλλὰ τὴν
 ἀνθρώπου, μᾶλλον δ' ἴσως τὴν τοῦδε· καθ' ἕκαστον
 γὰρ ἰατρεύει. καὶ περὶ μὲν τούτων ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον
 εἰρήσθω.
- vii Πάλιν δ' ἐπανέλθωμεν ἐπὶ τὸ ζητούμενον ἀγαθόν, 15
 τί ποτ' ἂν εἴη. φαίνεται μὲν γὰρ ἄλλο ἐν ἄλλῃ
 πράξει καὶ τέχνῃ· ἄλλο γὰρ ἐν ἰατρικῇ καὶ στρα-
 τηγικῇ, καὶ² ταῖς λοιπαῖς ὁμοίως. τί οὖν ἐκάστης
 τὰγαθόν; ἢ οὐ χάριν τὰ λοιπὰ πράττεται; τοῦτο

¹ τὸ αὐτοαγαθὸν M^b, τὸ αὐτὸ τοῦτο ἀγαθὸν K^b.

² καὶ? ed.

^a Or perhaps 'to supply what is lacking of it' (the good at which they aim); but cf. c. vii. 17.

^b i.e., the particular good which is the end of his own science.

- cable or attainable by man ; but the Good which we are now seeking is a good within human reach.
- 14 But possibly someone may think that to know the Ideal Good may be desirable as an aid to achieving those goods which are practicable and attainable : having the Ideal Good as a pattern we shall more easily know what things are good for us, and knowing
- 15 them, obtain them. Now it is true that this argument has a certain plausibility ; but it does not seem to square with the actual procedure of the sciences. For these all aim at some good, and seek to make up their deficiencies,^a but they do not trouble about a knowledge of the Ideal Good. Yet if it were so potent an aid, it is improbable that all the professors of the arts and sciences should not know it, nor even
- 16 seek to discover it. Moreover, it is not easy to see *how* a knowledge of the Ideal Good will help a weaver or carpenter in the practice of his own craft, or how anybody will be a better physician or general for having contemplated the absolute Idea. In fact it does not appear that the physician studies even health ^b in the abstract ; he studies the health of the human being—or rather of some particular human being, for it is individuals that he has to cure.
- Let us here conclude our discussion of this subject.
- vii We may now return to the Good which is the object of our search, and try to find out what exactly it can be. For good appears to be one thing in one pursuit or art and another in another : it is different in medicine from what it is in strategy, and so on with the rest of the arts. What definition of the Good then will hold true in all the arts ? Perhaps we may define it as that for the sake of which every-thing else is done. This applies to something
- and useless even as a guide to the attainment of practicable goods.
- Happiness the Supreme practical Good because (a) perfect or final, and (b) self-sufficient or complete in itself.

ARISTOTLE

δ' ἐν ἰατρικῇ μὲν ὑγίεια, ἐν στρατηγικῇ δὲ νίκη, 20
 ἐν οἰκοδομικῇ δ' οἰκία, ἐν ἄλλῳ δ' ἄλλο, ἐν ἀπάσῃ
 δὲ πράξει καὶ προαιρέσει τὸ τέλος· τούτου γὰρ
 ἔνεκα τὰ λοιπὰ πράττουσι πάντες. ὥστ' εἴ τι¹ τῶν
 πρακτῶν ἀπάντων ἐστὶ τέλος, τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη τὸ
 2 πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν, εἰ δὲ πλείω, ταῦτα. μεταβαίνων
 δὴ ὁ λόγος εἰς ταῦτὸν ἀφίκεται· τοῦτο δ' ἔτι 25
 3 μᾶλλον διασαφῆσαι πειρατέον. ἐπεὶ δὴ² πλείω
 φαίνεται τὰ τέλη, τούτων δ' αἰρούμεθά τινα δι'
 ἕτερα,³ οἷον πλούτον, αὐλοὺς καὶ ὅλως τὰ ὄργανα,
 δῆλον ὡς οὐκ ἔστι πάντα τέλεια· τὸ δ' ἄριστον
 τέλειόν τι φαίνεται. ὥστ' εἰ μὲν ἐστὶν ἓν τι μόνον
 τέλειον, τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη τὸ ζητούμενον, εἰ δὲ πλείω, 30
 4 τὸ τελειότατον τούτων. τελειότερον δὲ λέγομεν
 τὸ καθ' αὐτὸ διωκτὸν τοῦ δι' ἕτερον καὶ τὸ μηδέ-
 ποτε δι' ἄλλο αἰρετὸν τῶν καὶ⁴ καθ' αὐτὰ καὶ διὰ
 τοῦθ'⁵ αἰρετῶν, καὶ ἀπλῶς δὴ τέλειον τὸ καθ'
 5 αὐτὸ αἰρετὸν ἀεὶ καὶ μηδέποτε δι' ἄλλο. τοιοῦτον
 δ' ἡ εὐδαιμονία μάλιστα εἶναι δοκεῖ· ταύτην γὰρ 10971
 αἰρούμεθα ἀεὶ δι' αὐτὴν καὶ οὐδέποτε δι' ἄλλο,

¹ εἰ ἓν τι Zwinger.² δὴ Hel.: δὲ.³ ἕτερον K^bΓ.⁴ καὶ add. Felicianus.⁵ δι' αὐτὰ K^b, δι' αὐτὸ Asp., δι' ἄλλο Γ.^a Cf. c. ii. 1.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 1-5

different in each different art—to health in the case of medicine, to victory in that of strategy, to a house in architecture, and to something else in each of the other arts ; but in every pursuit or undertaking it describes the end of that pursuit or undertaking, since in all of them it is for the sake of the end that everything else is done. Hence if there be something which is the end of all the things done by human action, this will be the practicable Good—or if there be several such ends, the sum of these will
2 be the Good. Thus by changing its ground the argument has reached the same result as before.^a We must attempt however to render this still more precise.

3 Now there do appear to be several ends at which our actions aim ; but as we choose some of them—for instance wealth, or flutes, and instruments generally—as a means to something else, it is clear that not all of them are final ends ; whereas the Supreme Good seems to be something final or perfect. Consequently if there be some one thing which alone is a final end, this thing—or if there be several final ends, the one among them which is the most final—
4 will be the Good which we are seeking. In speaking of degrees of finality, we mean that a thing pursued as an end in itself is more final than one pursued as a means to something else, and that a thing never chosen as a means to anything else is more final than things chosen both as ends in themselves and as means to that thing ; and accordingly a thing chosen always as an end and never as a means we
5 call absolutely final. Now happiness above all else appears to be absolutely final in this sense, since we always choose it for its own sake and never as a

ARISTOTLE

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 5 αὐτὸ αἵρετὸν ἀεὶ καὶ μηδέποτε δι' ἄλλο. τοιοῦτον
 δ' ἡ εὐδαιμονία μάλιστα εἶναι δοκεῖ· ταύτην γὰρ 1097
 αἰρούμεθα ἀεὶ δι' αὐτὴν καὶ οὐδέποτε δι' ἄλλο,

¹ εἰ ἔν τι Zwinger.

³ ἕτερον K^bΓ.

⁵ δι' αὐτὰ K^b, δι' αὐτὸ Asp., δι' ἄλλο Γ.

² δὴ Hel.: δέ.

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NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 1-5

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5 call absolutely final. Now happiness above all else appears to be absolutely final in this sense, since we always choose it for its own sake and never as a

ARISTOTLE

τιμὴν δὲ καὶ ἡδονὴν καὶ νοῦν καὶ πᾶσαν ἀρετὴν
 αἰρούμεθα μὲν καὶ δι' αὐτά (μηθενὸς γὰρ ἀπο-
 βαίνοντος ἐλοίμεθ' ἂν ἕκαστον αὐτῶν), αἰρούμεθα
 δὲ καὶ τῆς εὐδαιμονίας χάριν, διὰ τούτων ὑπο- 5
 λαμβάνοντες εὐδαιμονήσιν· τὴν δ' εὐδαιμονίαν
 οὐδεὶς αἰρεῖται τούτων χάριν, οὐδ' ὅλως δι' ἄλλο.
 6 φαίνεται δὲ καὶ ἐκ τῆς αὐταρκείας τὸ αὐτὸ συμ-
 βαίνειν. τὸ γὰρ τέλειον ἀγαθὸν αὐταρκές εἶναι δοκεῖ.
 τὸ δ' αὐταρκές λέγομεν οὐκ αὐτῷ μόνῳ, τῷ ζῶντι
 βίον μονώτην, ἀλλὰ καὶ γονεῦσι καὶ τέκνοις καὶ 10
 γυναικὶ καὶ ὅλως τοῖς φίλοις καὶ πολίταις, ἐπειδὴ
 7 φύσει πολιτικὸν¹ ὁ² ἄνθρωπος. τούτων δὲ ληπτέος
 ὅρος τις· ἐπεκτείνοντι γὰρ ἐπὶ τοὺς γονεῖς³ καὶ
 τοὺς ἀπογόνους καὶ τῶν φίλων τοὺς φίλους εἰς
 ἅπειρον πρόεισιν. ἀλλὰ τοῦτο μὲν εἰσαυθὺς ἐπι- 15
 σκεπτέον, τὸ δ' αὐταρκές τίθεμεν ὁ μονούμενον
 αἰρετὸν ποιεῖ τὸν βίον καὶ μηθενὸς ἐνδεᾶ· τοιοῦτον
 8 δὲ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν οἰόμεθα εἶναι. ἔτι δὲ πάντων
 αἰρετωτάτην μὴ συναριθμουμένην—συναριθμουμένην⁴
 γὰρ⁵ δῆλον ὡς αἰρετωτέραν⁶ μετὰ τοῦ ἐλαχίστου
 τῶν ἀγαθῶν, ἡπεροχὴ γὰρ ἀγαθῶν γίνεται τὸ
 πρόστιθέμενον, ἀγαθῶν δὲ τὸ μείζον αἰρετωτέρον

¹ πολιτικός L^b.

² ὁ om. L^b.

³ γονεῖς <τῶν γόνων> R^{assow}: fort. προγόνους ed.

⁴ συναριθμουμένη Γ.

⁵ γὰρ Ar.: δέ.

⁶ αἰρετωτέρα Γ.

^a Lit. 'a political thing.' *Pol.* 1253 a 2 adds ζῶον, 'a political animal.'

^b Sc. but as including all other good things as the end includes the means.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 5-8

- means to something else ; whereas honour, pleasure, intelligence, and excellence in its various forms, we choose indeed for their own sakes (since we should be glad to have each of them although no extraneous advantage resulted from it), but we also choose them for the sake of happiness, in the belief that they will be a means to our securing it. But no one chooses happiness for the sake of honour, pleasure, etc., nor as a means to anything whatever other than itself.
- 6 The same conclusion also appears to follow from a consideration of the self-sufficiency of happiness—for it is felt that the final good must be a thing sufficient in itself. The term self-sufficient, however, we employ with reference not to oneself alone, living a life of isolation, but also to one's parents and children and wife, and one's friends and fellow citizens in general, since man is by nature a social
- 7 being.^a On the other hand a limit has to be assumed in these relationships ; for if the list be extended to one's ancestors and descendants and to the friends of one's friends, it will go on *ad infinitum*. But this is a point that must be considered later on ; we take a self-sufficient thing to mean a thing which merely standing by itself alone renders life desirable and lacking in nothing, and such a thing we deem happiness to be. Moreover, we think happiness the most
- 8 desirable of all good things without being itself reckoned as one among the rest ;^b for if it were so reckoned, it is clear that we should consider it more desirable when even the smallest of other good things were combined with it, since this addition would result in a larger total of good, and of two goods the greater is always the more desirable.

ARISTOTLE

αεί. τέλειον δὴ τι φαίνεται καὶ αὐταρκες ἢ 20
εὐδαιμονία, τῶν πρακτῶν οὐσα τέλος.

- 9 Ἄλλ' ἴσως τὴν μὲν εὐδαιμονίαν τὸ ἄριστον
λέγειν ὁμολογούμενόν τι φαίνεται, ποθεῖται δ'
10 ἐναργέστερον τί ἐστὶν ἔτι λεχθῆναι. τάχα δὴ
γένοιτ' ἂν τοῦτ', εἰ ληφθείη τὸ ἔργον τοῦ ἀνθρώπου. 25
ὥσπερ γὰρ αὐλητῇ καὶ ἀγαλματοποιῷ καὶ παντὶ
τεχνίτῃ, καὶ ὅλως ὧν ἐστὶν ἔργον τι καὶ πρᾶξις, ἐν
τῷ ἔργῳ δοκεῖ τὰγαθὸν εἶναι καὶ τὸ εὔ, οὕτω
δόξειεν ἂν καὶ ἀνθρώπῳ, εἴπερ ἔστι τι ἔργον αὐτοῦ.
- 11 πότερον οὖν τέκτονος μὲν καὶ σκυτέως ἐστὶν ἔργα
τινὰ καὶ πράξεις, ἀνθρώπου δ' οὐδέν ἐστιν, ἀλλ' 30
ἀργὸν πέφυκεν; ἢ καθάπερ ὀφθαλμοῦ καὶ χειρὸς
καὶ ποδὸς καὶ ὅλως ἐκάστου τῶν μορίων φαίνεται
τι ἔργον, οὕτω καὶ ἀνθρώπου παρὰ πάντα ταῦτα
- 12 θείη τις ἂν ἔργον τι; τί οὖν δὴ τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη ποτέ;
τὸ μὲν γὰρ ζῆν κοινὸν εἶναι φαίνεται καὶ τοῖς
φυτοῖς, ζητεῖται δὲ τὸ ἴδιον· ἀφοριστέον ἄρα τὴν 1098i
θρεπτικὴν καὶ αὐξητικὴν ζωήν. ἐπομένη δὲ αἰσθη-
τικὴ τις ἂν εἴη· φαίνεται δὲ καὶ αὕτη κοινὴ καὶ
- 13 ἵππῳ καὶ βοῇ καὶ παντὶ ζῴῳ. λείπεται δὴ πρα-
κτικὴ τις τοῦ λόγον ἔχοντος (τούτου δὲ τὸ μὲν ὡς

^a 'Practice' for Aristotle denotes purposeful conduct, of which only rational beings are capable, cf. vi. vi. 8 note.

^b This anticipation of c. xiii. 19 is irrelevant, and states decisively a point there left doubtful. Also on grounds of Greek this parenthesis has been suspected as an interpolation.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 8-13

Happiness, therefore, being found to be something final and self-sufficient, is the End at which all actions aim.

- 9 To say however that the Supreme Good is happiness will probably appear a truism ; we still require a more explicit account of what constitutes happiness.
- 10 Perhaps then we may arrive at this by ascertaining what is man's function. For the goodness or efficiency of a flute-player or sculptor or craftsman of any sort, and in general of anybody who has some function or business to perform, is thought to reside in that function ; and similarly it may be held that the good of man resides in the function of man, if he has a function.
- 11 Are we then to suppose that, while the carpenter and the shoemaker have definite functions or businesses belonging to them, man as such has none, and is not designed by nature to fulfil any function ? Must we not rather assume that, just as the eye, the hand, the foot and each of the various members of the body manifestly has a certain function of its own, so a human being also has a certain function over and above all the functions of his particular
- 12 members ? What then precisely can this function be ? The mere act of living appears to be shared even by plants, whereas we are looking for the function peculiar to man ; we must therefore set aside the vital activity of nutrition and growth. Next in the scale will come some form of sentient life ; but this too appears to be shared by horses, oxen, and animals generally. There remains therefore what may be called the practical^a life of the rational part of man. (This part has two divisions,^b

Nature of
Happiness
deduced
from the
Function
of man.

- ἐπιπειθὲς λόγῳ, τὸ δ' ὥς ἔχον καὶ διανοούμενον)¹.
 διττῶς δὲ καὶ ταύτης λεγομένης τὴν κατ' ἐνέργειαν
 14 θετέον· κυριώτερον γὰρ αὕτη δοκεῖ λέγεσθαι. εἰ
 δὴ ἐστὶν ἔργον ἀνθρώπου ψυχῆς ἐνέργεια κατὰ
 λόγον ἢ μὴ ἄνευ λόγου, τὸ δ' αὐτό φαμεν ἔργον
 εἶναι τῷ γένει τοῦδε καὶ τοῦδε σπουδαίου (ὥσπερ
 κιθαριστοῦ καὶ σπουδαίου κιθαριστοῦ, καὶ ἀπλῶς 10
 δὴ τοῦτ' ἐπὶ πάντων) προστιθεμένης τῆς κατ'
 ἀρετὴν ὑπεροχῆς πρὸς τὸ ἔργον (κιθαριστοῦ μὲν
 γὰρ τὸ κιθαρίζειν, σπουδαίου δὲ τὸ εἶναι). εἰ δὴ²
 οὕτως, ἀνθρώπου³ δὲ τίθεμεν ἔργον ζωὴν τινα,
 ταύτην δὲ ψυχῆς ἐνέργειαν καὶ πράξεις μετὰ λόγου,
 15 σπουδαίου δ' ἀνδρὸς εἶ ταῦτα καὶ καλῶς, ἕκαστον 15
 δ' εἶ κατὰ τὴν οἰκείαν ἀρετὴν ἀποτελεῖται· εἰ δὴ⁴
 οὕτω, τὸ ἀνθρώπινον ἀγαθὸν ψυχῆς ἐνέργεια
 γίνεται κατ' ἀρετὴν, εἰ δὲ πλείους αἱ ἀρεταί,
 16 κατὰ τὴν ἀρίστην καὶ τελειοτάτην. ἔτι δ' ἐν βίῳ
 τελείῳ· μία γὰρ χελιδὼν ἔαρ οὐ ποιεῖ, οὐδὲ μία
 ἡμέρα· οὕτω δὲ οὐδὲ μακάριον καὶ εὐδαίμονα μία
 ἡμέρα οὐδ' ὀλίγος χρόνος.

20

¹ τούτου.. διανοούμενον secl. Grant.

² δὴ Susemihl: δέ.

³ ἀνθρώπου...οὕτω secl. Bywater.

⁴ δὴ Bonitz: δέ.

^a In contrast with the mere state of possessing the faculty.

^b Literally 'activity of soul'; ψυχὴ however has a wider connotation than either 'soul' or 'mind,' and includes the whole of the vitality of any living creature.

^c The word μακάριος, rendered 'blessed' or 'supremely happy,' is a derivative of μάκαρ, the adjective applied in Homer and Hesiod to the gods and to those of mankind who have been admitted after death to the Islands of the Blest. See cc. x. 16, xii. 4.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 13-16

- one rational as obedient to principle, the other as possessing principle and exercising intelligence). Rational life again has two meanings ; let us assume that we are here concerned with the active exercise ^a of the rational faculty, since this seems to be the
- 14 more proper sense of the term. If then the function of man is the active exercise of the soul's faculties ^b in conformity with rational principle, or at all events not in dissociation from rational principle, and if we acknowledge the function of an individual and of a good individual of the same class (for instance, a harper and a good harper, and so generally with all classes) to be generically the same, the qualification of the latter's superiority in excellence being added to the function in his case (I mean that if the function of a harper is to play the harp, that of a good harper is to play the harp well) : if this is so, and if we declare that the function of man is a certain form of life, and define that form of life as the exercise of the soul's faculties and activities in association with
- 15 rational principle, and say that the function of a good man is to perform these activities well and rightly, and if a function is well performed when it is performed in accordance with its own proper excellence —if then all this be so, the Good of man proves to be the active exercise of his soul's faculties in conformity with excellence or virtue, or if there be several human excellences or virtues, in conformity with the best and most perfect among them.
- 16 Moreover, to be happy takes a complete lifetime. For one swallow does not make summer, nor does one fine day ; and similarly one day or a brief period of happiness does not make a man supremely blessed ^c and happy.

Definition of
Happiness.

ARISTOTLE

- 17 Περιγεγράφθω μὲν οὖν τὰγαθὸν ταύτῃ· δεῖ γὰρ
 ἴσως ὑποτυπῶσαι πρῶτον, εἴθ' ὕστερον ἀναγράψαι.
 δόξειε δ' ἂν παντὸς εἶναι προαγαγεῖν καὶ διαρθρῶ-
 σαι τὰ καλῶς ἔχοντα τῇ περιγραφῇ, καὶ ὁ χρόνος
 τῶν τοιούτων εὐρετῆς ἢ συνεργὸς ἀγαθὸς εἶναι·
 ὅθεν καὶ τῶν τεχνῶν γεγόνασιν αἱ ἐπιδόσεις· 25
- 18 παντὸς γὰρ προσθεῖναι τὸ ἐλλείπον. μεμνήσθαι δὲ
 καὶ τῶν προειρημένων χρή, καὶ τὴν ἀκρίβειαν μὴ
 ὁμοίως ἐν ᾗπασιν ἐπιζητεῖν, ἀλλ' ἐν ἐκάστοις κατὰ
 τὴν ὑποκειμένην ὕλην καὶ ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον ἐφ' ὅσον
- 19 οἰκεῖον τῇ μεθόδῳ. καὶ γὰρ τέκτων καὶ γεω-
 μέτρης διαφερόντως ἐπιζητοῦσι τὴν ὀρθήν· ὁ μὲν 30
 γὰρ ἐφ' ὅσον χρησίμη πρὸς τὸ ἔργον, ὁ δὲ τί ἐστίν
 ἢ ποιόν τι, θεατῆς γὰρ τάληθοῦς. τὸν αὐτὸν δὴ
 τρόπον καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις ποιητέον, ὅπως μὴ τὰ
- 20 πάρεργα τῶν ἔργων πλείω γίννηται. οὐκ ἀπαιτη-
 τέον δ' οὐδὲ τὴν αἰτίαν ἐν ᾗπασιν ὁμοίως, ἀλλ' 1098 b
 ἱκανὸν ἔν τισι τὸ ὅτι δειχθῆναι καλῶς, οἷον καὶ.
- 21 περὶ τὰς ἀρχάς· τὸ δ' ὅτι πρῶτον καὶ ἀρχή. τῶν
 ἀρχῶν δ' αἱ μὲν ἐπαγωγῇ θεωροῦνται, αἱ δ'
 αἰσθήσει, αἱ δ' ἐθισμῷ τινί, καὶ ἄλλαι δ' ἄλλως·
- 22 μετιέναι δὴ¹ πειρατέον ἐκάστας ἣ πεφύκασιν, καὶ 5
- 23 σπουδαστέον ὅπως διορισθῶσι καλῶς· μεγάλην γὰρ

¹ δὴ ed. : δὲ.^a c. iii. 1-4.^b Cf. c. iv. 7.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. vii. 17-22

- 17 Let this account then serve to describe the Good in outline—for no doubt the proper procedure is to begin by making a rough sketch, and to fill it in afterwards. If a work has been well laid down in outline, to carry it on and complete it in detail may be supposed to be within the capacity of anybody ; and in this working out of details Time seems to be a good inventor or at all events coadjutor. This indeed is how advances in the arts have actually
- 18 come about, since anyone can fill in the gaps. Also the warning given above^a must not be forgotten ; we must not look for equal exactness in all departments of study, but only such as belongs to the subject matter of each, and in such a degree as is appropriate to the particular line of enquiry. A carpenter and a geometrician both try to find a right angle, but in different ways ; the former is content with that approximation to it which satisfies the purpose of his work ; the latter, being a student of truth, seeks to find its essence or essential attributes. We should therefore proceed in the same manner in other subjects also, and not allow side issues to outbalance the main task in hand.
- 20 Nor again must we in all matters alike demand an explanation of the reason why things are what they are ; in some cases it is enough if the fact that they are so is satisfactorily established.^b This is the case with first principles ; and the fact is the primary
- 21 thing—it is a first principle. And different principles are learnt in different ways—some by induction, others by intuition, others again by some form
- 22 of habituation ; so we must endeavour to arrive at the principles of each kind in their natural manner, and must also be careful to define them correctly,

Ethics a practical and therefore not an exact science.

ARISTOTLE

ἔχουσι ῥοπήν πρὸς τὰ ἐπόμενα· δοκεῖ γὰρ πλείον ἢ ἡμῖσι παντὸς εἶναι ἡ ἀρχή, καὶ πολλὰ συμφανῇ γίνεσθαι δι' αὐτῆς τῶν ζητουμένων.

- viii Σκεπτέον δὴ περὶ αὐτῆς οὐ μόνον ἐκ τοῦ συμπεράσματος καὶ ἐξ ὧν ὁ λόγος, ἀλλὰ καὶ ἐκ τῶν 10 λεγομένων περὶ αὐτῆς· τῷ μὲν γὰρ ἀληθεῖ πάντα συνάδει τὰ ὑπάρχοντα, τῷ δὲ ψευδεῖ ταχὺ διαφωνεῖ 2 [τάληθές].¹—νενεμημένων δὴ τῶν ἀγαθῶν τριχῇ, καὶ τῶν μὲν ἐκτὸς λεγομένων τῶν δὲ περὶ ψυχὴν καὶ σῶμα, τὰ περὶ ψυχὴν κυριώτατα λέγομεν καὶ μάλιστα ἀγαθὰ. τὰς δὲ πράξεις καὶ τὰς ἐνεργείας 15 τὰς ψυχικὰς περὶ ψυχὴν τίθεμεν· ὥστε καλῶς ἂν λέγοιτο κατὰ γε ταύτην τὴν δόξαν παλαιὰν οὔσαν καὶ ὁμολογουμένην ὑπὸ τῶν φιλοσοφούντων. 3 ὀρθῶς δὲ καὶ ὅτι πράξεις τινὲς λέγονται καὶ ἐνέργειαι τὸ τέλος· οὕτω γὰρ τῶν περὶ ψυχὴν ἀγα- 4 θῶν γίνεται, καὶ οὐ τῶν ἐκτὸς. συνάδει δὲ τῷ 20 λόγῳ καὶ τὸ εὖ ζῆν καὶ τὸ εὖ πράττειν τὸν εὐδαί-

¹ Rassow.

^a The usual form of the proverb is 'The beginning is half of the whole.' Aristotle applies it by a sort of play on words, to ἀρχή in its technical sense of a general principle of science, which is a 'beginning' in the sense that it is the starting-point of deductive reasoning. There is a reminiscence of Hesiod, *Works and Days* 30, πλέον ἡμῖσι παντός, 'The half is more than the whole,' though the meaning of that is entirely different.

^b i.e. our definition of the Good for man, or happiness.

^c The turn of phrase associates 'bodily goods' with 'goods of the soul,' both being personal, in contrast with the third class, 'external goods.' But it at once appears that the important distinction is between 'goods of the soul' on the one hand and all the rest ('the goods in the 36

23 since they are of great importance for the subsequent course of the enquiry. The beginning is admittedly more than half of the whole,^a and throws light at once on many of the questions under investigation.

riii Accordingly we must examine our first principle ^b not only as a logical conclusion deduced from certain premises but also in the light of the current opinions on the subject. For if a proposition be true, all the facts harmonize with it, but if it is false, it is quickly seen to be discordant with them.

cc. viii-xii.
Definition of
Happiness
tested.
c. viii. It
satisfies
current
opinions.

2 Now things good have been divided into three classes, external goods on the one hand, and goods of the soul and of the body on the other ^c; and of these three kinds of goods, those of the soul are commonly said to be the highest, and good in the fullest degree. But our actions, that is, the soul's active exercise of its functions,^d must be placed in the class of things of the soul; hence so far as this opinion goes—and it is of long standing, and generally accepted by students of philosophy—it supports the correctness of our definition of Happiness.

3 It also shows it to be right in declaring the End to consist in certain actions or activities, for thus the End is included among goods of the soul, and not among external goods.^e

4 Again, our definition accords with the description of the happy man as one who 'lives well' or 'does

body and those outside and of fortune,' vii. xiii. 2) on the other. Hence in § 3 'external goods' must include 'bodily goods,' as also §§ 15 f., where 'external goods' are subdivided into the instruments and the indispensable conditions of well-being (and so in more scientific language, c. ix. 7), the latter subdivision including beauty, the only bodily good there specified.

^a See the definition, c. vii. 15.

^c See note ^c.

ARISTOTLE

μονα· σχεδὸν γὰρ εὐζωΐα τις εἴρηται καὶ εὐπραξία.
 5 φαίνεται δὲ καὶ τὰ ἐπιζητούμενα περὶ τὴν εὐδαι-
 6 μονίαν ἅπανθ' ὑπάρχειν τῷ λεχθέντι. τοῖς μὲν γὰρ
 ἀρετῇ, τοῖς δὲ φρόνησις, ἄλλοις δὲ σοφία τις εἶναι
 δοκεῖ· τοῖς δὲ ταῦτα ἢ τούτων τι μεθ' ἡδονῆς ἢ ²⁵
 οὐκ ἄνευ ἡδονῆς· ἕτεροι δὲ καὶ τὴν ἐκτὸς εὐετηρίαν
 7 συμπααραλαμβάνουσιν. τούτων δὲ τὰ μὲν πολλοὶ
 καὶ παλαιοὶ λέγουσιν, τὰ δὲ ὀλίγοι καὶ ἔνδοξοι
 ἄνδρες· οὐδετέρους δὲ τούτων εὐλογον διαμαρτάνειν
 τοῖς ὅλοις, ἀλλ' ἔν γέ τι ἢ καὶ τὰ πλεῖστα κατ-
 8 ορθοῦν. τοῖς μὲν οὖν λέγουσι τὴν ἀρετὴν ἢ ἀρετὴν ³⁰
 τινα συνωδός¹ ἐστὶν ὁ λόγος· ταύτης γὰρ ἐστὶν ἡ
 9 κατ' αὐτὴν ἐνέργεια. διαφέρει δὲ ἴσως οὐ μικρὸν
 ἐν κτήσει ἢ χρήσει τὸ ἄριστον ὑπολαμβάνειν καὶ
 ἐν ἔξει ἢ ἐνεργείᾳ. τὴν μὲν γὰρ ἔξιν ἐνδέχεται
 μηδὲν ἀγαθὸν ἀποτελεῖν <ἐν>υπάρχουσιν,² οἷον τῷ ^{1099 a}
 καθεύδοντι ἢ καὶ ἄλλως πως ἐξηργηκότι, τὴν
 δ' ἐνέργειαν οὐχ οἷόν τε· πράξει γὰρ ἐξ ἀνάγκης,
 καὶ εὖ πράξει. ὥσπερ δ' Ὀλυμπίασιν οὐχ οἱ
 κάλλιστοι καὶ ἰσχυρότατοι στεφανοῦνται ἀλλ' οἱ ⁵
 ἀγωνιζόμενοι (τούτων γὰρ τινες νικῶσιν), οὕτω

¹ συνωδός vulg.: σύνορος K^o, σύμφωνος L^b.

² Richards.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. viii. 4-9

well' ; for it has virtually identified happiness with a form of good life or doing well.^a

5 And moreover all the various characteristics that are looked for in happiness are found to belong to
6 the Good as we define it. Some people think happiness is goodness or virtue, others prudence, others a form of wisdom ; others again say it is all of these things, or one of them, in combination with pleasure, or accompanied by pleasure as an indispensable adjunct ; another school include external prosperity
7 as a concomitant factor. Some of these views have been held by many people and from ancient times, others by a few distinguished men, and neither class is likely to be altogether mistaken ; the probability is that their beliefs are at least partly, or indeed mainly, correct.

8 Now with those who pronounce happiness to be virtue, or some particular virtue, our definition is in agreement ; for 'activity in conformity with virtue'
9 involves virtue. But no doubt it makes a great difference whether we conceive the Supreme Good to depend on possessing virtue or on displaying it—on disposition, or on the manifestation of a disposition in action. For a man may possess the disposition without its producing any good result, as for instance when he is asleep, or has ceased to function from some other cause ; but virtue in active exercise cannot be inoperative—it will of necessity act, and act well. And just as at the Olympic games the wreaths of victory are not bestowed upon the handsomest and strongest persons present, but on men who enter for the competitions—since it is among these that the winners are found,—so it is those who

^a Cf. c. iv. 2 note.

ARISTOTLE

- καὶ τῶν ἐν τῷ βίῳ καλῶν καγαθῶν οἱ πράττοντες
 10 ὀρθῶς ἐπήβολοι γίνονται. ἔστι δὲ καὶ ὁ βίος
 αὐτῶν καθ' αὐτὸν ἡδύς. τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἡδεσθαι τῶν
 ψυχικῶν. ἐκάστῳ δ' ἐστὶν ἡδὺ πρὸς ὃ λέγεται
 φιλοτοιοῦτος, οἷον ἵππος μὲν τῷ φιλίππῳ, θέαμα
 δὲ τῷ φιλοθεώρῳ, τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον καὶ τὰ 10
 δίκαια τῷ φιλοδικαίῳ καὶ ὅλως τὰ κατ' ἀρετὴν τῷ
 11 φιλαρέτῳ· τοῖς μὲν οὖν πολλοῖς τὰ ἡδέα μάχεται,
 διὰ τὸ μὴ φύσει τοιαῦτ' εἶναι, τοῖς δὲ φιλοκάλοις
 ἐστὶν ἡδέα τὰ φύσει ἡδέα· τοιαῦται δ' αἱ κατ'
 ἀρετὴν πράξεις· ὥστε καὶ τούτοις εἰσὶν ἡδεῖαι καὶ
 12 καθ' αὐτάς. οὐδὲν δὴ¹ προσδεῖται τῆς ἡδονῆς ὁ 15
 βίος αὐτῶν ὥσπερ περιάπτου τινός, ἀλλ' ἔχει τὴν
 ἡδονὴν ἐν ἑαυτῷ. πρὸς τοῖς εἰρημένοις γὰρ οὐδ'
 ἐστὶν ἀγαθὸς ὁ μὴ χαίρων ταῖς καλαῖς πράξεσιν·
 οὔτε γὰρ δίκαιον οὐδεὶς ἂν εἴποι τὸν μὴ χαίροντα
 τῷ δικαιοπραγεῖν, οὔτ' ἐλευθέριον τὸν μὴ χαίροντα
 ταῖς ἐλευθερίοις πράξεσιν, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν 20
 13 ἄλλων· εἰ δ' οὕτω, καθ' αὐτάς ἂν εἶεν αἱ κατ'
 ἀρετὴν πράξεις ἡδεῖαι.—ἀλλὰ μὴν καὶ ἀγαθαί γε

¹ δὲ LbΓ.

^a Not an experience of the body (*cf.* x. iii. 6), even in the case of 'bodily pleasures.' This brings pleasure within the definition of happiness as "an activity of the soul."

^b Morally inferior people like things that are only pleasant 'accidentally,' *i.e.* owing not to some quality inherent in the thing but to something extraneous to it, *viz.* some depravity of taste or temporary affection in the person. Hence not only do different people think different things pleasant but the same person thinks the same thing pleasant at one time and unpleasant at another—and so repents to-day of his indulgence yesterday; or he desires two incompatible things at once, or desires a thing with one part

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. viii. 9-13

- *act* rightly who carry off the prizes and good things of life.
- 10 And further, the life of active virtue is essentially pleasant. For on the one hand, the feeling of pleasure is an experience of the soul.^a Also, when a man is described as "fond of" so-and-so, the thing in question gives him pleasure: for instance a horse gives pleasure to one fond of horses, a play to one fond of the theatre, and similarly just actions are pleasant to the lover of justice, and acts conforming
- 11 with virtue generally to the lover of virtue. But whereas the mass of mankind take pleasure in things that conflict with one another,^b because they are not pleasant of their own nature, the lovers of what is noble take pleasure in things pleasant by nature. But lovers of the noble take pleasure in actions conforming with virtue. Therefore actions in conformity with virtue are pleasant essentially
- 12 as well as pleasant to lovers of the right. Thus their life has no need of pleasure as a sort of additional appendage,^c but contains its pleasure in itself. For there is the further consideration that the man who does not enjoy doing noble actions is not a good man at all: no one would call a man just if he did not like acting justly, nor liberal if he did not like doing liberal things, and similarly with the other
- 13 virtues. But if so, actions in conformity with virtue must be essentially pleasant.

But they are also of course both good and noble, of his nature that he dislikes with another, so that there is a conflict between his desires, or between his desire for pleasure and his wish for what he thinks good (see ix. iv., esp. §§ 8-10, and contrast § 5.)

^c Literally an amulet hung round the neck or fastened round a limb.

ARISTOTLE

καὶ καλαί, καὶ μάλιστα τούτων ἕκαστον, εἴπερ
καλῶς κρίνει περὶ αὐτῶν ὁ σπουδαῖος· κρίνει δ' ὡς
14 εἵπομεν. ἄριστον ἄρα καὶ κάλλιστον καὶ ἡδιστον ἢ
εὐδαιμονία, καὶ οὐ διώριστα ταῦτα κατὰ τὸ 25
Δηλιακὸν ἐπίγραμμα—

κάλλιστον τὸ δικαιοτάτον, λῶστον δ' ὑγιαίνειν,
ἡδιστον δὲ πέφυχ' οὐ τις ἐρᾷ τὸ τυχεῖν—,

ἅπαντα γὰρ ὑπάρχει ταῦτα ταῖς ἀρίσταῖς ἐνεργείαις·
ταύτας δέ, ἢ μίαν τούτων τὴν ἀρίστην, φαμέν εἶναι 30
15 τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν.—φαίνεται δ' ὁμως καὶ τῶν ἐκτὸς
ἀγαθῶν προσδεομένη, καθάπερ εἵπομεν· ἀδύνατον
γὰρ ἢ οὐ ῥάδιον τὰ καλὰ πράττειν ἀχορήγητον
ὄντα. πολλὰ μὲν γὰρ πράττεται, καθάπερ δι' 10991
ὀργάνων, διὰ φίλων καὶ πλούτου καὶ πολιτικῆς
16 δυνάμεως· ἐνίων δὲ τητῶμενοι ῥυπαίνουσι τὸ
μακάριον, οἷον εὐγενείας, εὐτεκνίας, κάλλους· οὐ
πάνυ γὰρ εὐδαιμονικὸς ὁ τὴν ἰδέαν παναίσχης ἢ
δυσγενῆς ἢ μονώτης καὶ ἄτεκνος, ἔτι δ' ἴσως 5
ἦττον, εἴ τῳ πάγκακοι παῖδες εἴεν ἢ φίλοι, ἢ¹
17 ἀγαθοὶ ὄντες, τεθνᾶσιν.² καθάπερ οὖν εἵπομεν,
ἔοικε προσδεῖσθαι καὶ τῆς τοιαύτης εὐημερίας·

¹ ἢ φίλοι om. H^a : ἢ post φίλοι om. K^b.

² τεθναῖεν (vel supra εἰσιν) Richards.

^a It was one of the public duties of rich citizens at Athens to equip the chorus and actors of a drama at their own expense. One so doing was called χορηγός (chorus-leader, as no doubt originally he was), and the dresses, etc., he supplied, χορηγία. The latter term is frequently used by

and each in the highest degree, if the good man judges them rightly; and his judgement is as we
 14 have said. It follows therefore that happiness is at once the best, the noblest, and the pleasantest of things: these qualities are not separated as the inscription at Delos makes out—

Justice is noblest, and health is best,
 But the heart's desire is the pleasantest—,

for the best activities possess them all; and it is the best activities, or one activity which is the best of all, in which according to our definition happiness consists.

15 Nevertheless it is manifest that happiness also requires external goods in addition, as we said; for it is impossible, or at least not easy, to play a noble part unless furnished with the necessary equipment.^a For many noble actions require instruments for their performance, in the shape of friends or
 16 wealth or political power; also there are certain external advantages, the lack of which sullies supreme felicity, such as good birth, satisfactory children, and personal beauty: a man of very ugly appearance or low birth, or childless and alone in the world, is not our idea of a happy man, and still less so perhaps is one who has children or friends^b that are worthless, or who has had good ones but lost them
 17 by death. As we said therefore, happiness does seem to require the addition of external prosperity,

Aristotle to denote the material equipment of life, and has almost or quite ceased to be felt as a metaphor.

^b Perhaps 'or friends' is slipped in because of 'alone in the world' just above, but friends should not be mentioned here among the indispensable conditions of happiness, as they were included just above among its instruments (see § 2 note).

ARISTOTLE

ὁθεν εἰς ταὐτὸ τάττουσιν ἔνιοι τὴν εὐτυχίαν τῇ
εὐδαιμονίᾳ [ἔνιοι δὲ τὴν ἀρετὴν].¹

- ix "Ὅθεν καὶ ἀπορεῖται πότερόν ἐστι μαθητὸν ἢ
ἐθιστὸν ἢ ἄλλως πως ἀσκητὸν, ἢ κατὰ τινα θείαν 10
μοῖραν ἢ καὶ διὰ τύχην παραγίνεται. εἰ μὲν οὖν
καὶ ἄλλο τι ἐστὶ θεῶν δώρημα ἀνθρώποις, εὐλογον
καὶ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν θεόσδοτον εἶναι, καὶ μάλιστα
3 τῶν ἀνθρωπίνων ὅσω βέλτιστον. ἀλλὰ τοῦτο μὲν
ἴσως ἄλλης ἂν εἴη σκέψεως οἰκειότερον, φαίνεται
δέ, καὶ εἰ μὴ θεόπεμπτός ἐστιν ἀλλὰ δι' ἀρετὴν καὶ 15
τινα μάθησιν ἢ ἀσκησιν παραγίνεται, τῶν θειοτάτων
εἶναι· τὸ γὰρ τῆς ἀρετῆς ἄθλον καὶ τέλος ἄριστον
4 εἶναι φαίνεται καὶ θεῖόν τι καὶ μακάριον. εἴη δ'
ἂν καὶ πολύκοινον· δυνατόν γὰρ ὑπάρξαι πᾶσι τοῖς
μὴ πεπηρωμένοις πρὸς ἀρετὴν διὰ τινος μαθήσεως
5 καὶ ἐπιμελείας. εἰ δ' ἐστὶν οὕτω βέλτιον ἢ διὰ 20
τύχην εὐδαιμονεῖν, εὐλογον ἔχειν οὕτως, εἴπερ τὰ
κατὰ φύσιν, ὥς οἶόν τε κάλλιστα ἔχειν, οὕτω
6 πέφυκεν, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὰ κατὰ τέχνην καὶ πᾶσαν
αἰτίαν, καὶ μάλιστα <τὰ>² κατὰ τὴν ἀρίστην· τὸ δὲ
μέγιστον καὶ κάλλιστον ἐπιτρέψαι τύχῃ λίαν πλημ-
7 μελὲς ἂν εἴη. συμφανὲς δ' ἐστὶ καὶ ἐκ τοῦ λόγου 25
τὸ ζητούμενον· εἴρηται γὰρ ψυχῆς ἐνέργεια [κατ'

¹ [ἔνιοι (K^b ἔτεροι) . . . ἀρετὴν] Gifanius.

² Wilson.

^a This irrelevant addition looks like an interpolation.

^b *i.e.*, theology, but Aristotle does not reopen the question in the *Metaphysics* or elsewhere.

^c *i.e.*, the intelligence of man.

- and this is why some people identify it with good fortune (though others identify it with virtue^a).
- ix It is this that gives rise to the question whether happiness is a thing that can be learnt, or acquired by training, or cultivated in some other manner, or whether it is bestowed by some divine dispensation or even by fortune. (1) Now if anything that men have is a gift of the gods, it is reasonable to suppose that happiness is divinely given—indeed of all man's possessions it is most likely to be so, inasmuch as it is the best of them all. This subject however may perhaps more properly belong to another branch of study.^b Still, even if happiness is not sent us from heaven, but is won by virtue and by some kind of study or practice, it seems to be one of the most divine things that exist. For the prize and end of virtue must clearly be supremely good—
- it must be something divine and blissful. (2) And also on our view it will admit of being widely diffused, since it can be attained through some process of study or effort by all persons whose capacity for virtue has not been stunted or maimed. (3) Again, if it is better to be happy as a result of one's own exertions than by the gift of fortune, it is reasonable to suppose that this is how happiness is won; inasmuch as in the world of nature things have a natural tendency to be ordered in the best possible way, and the same is true of the products of art, and of causation of any kind, and especially the highest.^c Whereas that the greatest and noblest of all things should be left to fortune would be too contrary to the fitness of things.
- 7 Light is also thrown on the question by our definition of happiness, which said that it is a certain
- Happiness
as defined
inde-
pendent of
Fortune;
- though it
requires
the gifts of

ARISTOTLE

- ἀρετὴν]¹ ποιά τις· τῶν δὲ λοιπῶν ἀγαθῶν τὰ μὲν
 ὑπάρχειν ἀναγκαῖον, τὰ δὲ συνεργὰ καὶ χρήσιμα
 8 πέφυκεν ὀργανικῶς. ὁμολογούμενα δὲ ταῦτ' ἂν
 εἴη καὶ τοῖς ἐν ἀρχῇ· τὸ γὰρ τῆς πολιτικῆς τέλος 30
 ἄριστον ἐτίθεμεν, αὕτη δὲ πλείστην ἐπιμέλειαν
 ποιεῖται τοῦ ποιούς τινος καὶ ἀγαθοὺς τοὺς πολίτας
 9 ποιῆσαι καὶ πρακτικοὺς τῶν καλῶν. εἰκότως οὖν
 οὔτε βούν οὔτε ἵππον οὔτε ἄλλο τῶν ζώων οὐδὲν
 εὐδαιμον λέγομεν· οὐδὲν γὰρ αὐτῶν οἷόν τε κοι- 1100^a
 10 νωνῆσαι τοιαύτης ἐνεργείας. διὰ ταύτην δὲ τὴν
 αἰτίαν οὐδὲ παῖς εὐδαίμων ἐστίν· οὐπω γὰρ πρα-
 κτικὸς τῶν τοιούτων διὰ τὴν ἡλικίαν· οἱ δὲ λεγό-
 μενοι διὰ τὴν ἐλπίδα μακαρίζονται. δεῖ γάρ,
 ὥσπερ εἵπομεν, καὶ ἀρετῆς τελείας καὶ βίου τελείου. 5
 11 πολλὰ γὰρ μεταβολαὶ γίνονται καὶ παντοῖαι τύχαι
 κατὰ τὸν βίον, καὶ ἐνδέχεται τὸν μάλιστ' εὐθενοῦντα
 μεγάλαις συμφοραῖς περιπεσεῖν ἐπὶ γήρῳ, καθάπερ
 ἐν τοῖς ἡρωϊκοῖς² περὶ Πριάμου μυθεύεται· τὸν δὲ
 τοιαύταις χρησάμενον τύχαις καὶ τελευτήσαντα
 ἀθλίως οὐδεὶς εὐδαιμονίζει.
- κ Πότερον οὖν οὐδ' ἄλλον οὐδένα ἀνθρώπων εὐδαι- 10
 μονιστέον ἕως ἂν ζῇ, κατὰ Σόλωνα δὲ χρεῶν “τέλος
 2 ὄραν”; εἰ δὲ δὴ καὶ θετέον οὕτως, ἄρα γε καὶ ἔστιν
 εὐδαίμων τότε, ἐπειδὴν ἀποθάνῃ; ἢ τοῦτό γε
 παντελῶς ἄτοπον, ἄλλως τε καὶ τοῖς λέγουσιν ἡμῖν

¹ Burnet.² Τρωικοῖς K^b.^a Cf. c. viii. 15, 16, and c. viii. 2 note.^b Viz., that happiness depends on us and not on fortune, the answer implied by the foregoing arguments to the question raised in § 1.^c See Herodotus, i. 30-23. Solon visited Croesus, king of Lydia, and was shown all his treasures, but refused to
46

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. ix. 7—x. 2

· kind of activity of the soul ; whereas the remaining good things ^a are either merely indispensable conditions of happiness, or are of the nature of auxiliary
8 means, and useful instrumentally. This conclusion ^b moreover agrees with what we laid down at the outset ; for we stated that the Supreme Good was the end of the political science, but the principal care of this science is to produce a certain character in the citizens, namely to make them virtuous, and capable of performing noble actions.

9 We have good reasons therefore for not speaking of an ox or horse or any other animal as being happy, because none of these is able to participate in noble
10 activities. For this cause also children cannot be happy, for they are not old enough to be capable of noble acts ; when children are spoken of as happy, it is in compliment to their promise for the future. Happiness, as we said, requires both com-
11 plete goodness and a complete lifetime. For many reverses and vicissitudes of all sorts occur in the course of life, and it is possible that the most prosperous man may encounter great disasters in his declining years, as the story is told of Priam in the epics ; but no one calls a man happy who meets with misfortunes like Priam's, and comes to a miserable end.

x Are we then to count no other human being happy either, as long as he is alive ? Must we obey Solon's
2 warning,^c and ' look to the end ' ? And if we are indeed to lay down this rule, can a man really be happy even after he is dead ? Surely that is an extremely strange notion, especially for us who

Fortune as conditions or as means.

Happiness therefore not easily affected by vicissitudes of Fortune.

call him the happiest of mankind until he should have heard that he had ended his life without misfortune ; he bade him ' mark the end of every matter, how it should turn out.'

ARISTOTLE

- 3 ἐνέργειάν τινα τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν; εἰ δὲ μὴ λέγομεν 15
 τὸν τεθνεῶτα εὐδαίμονα, μηδὲ Σόλων τοῦτο
 βούλεται, ἀλλ' ὅτι τηνικαῦτα ἂν τις ἀσφαλῶς
 μακαρίσειεν ἄνθρωπον ὡς ἐκτὸς ἤδη τῶν κακῶν
 ὄντα καὶ τῶν δυστυχημάτων, ἔχει μὲν καὶ τοῦτ'¹
 ἀμφισβήτησιν τινα· δοκεῖ γὰρ εἶναί τι τῷ τεθνεῶτι
 καὶ κακὸν καὶ ἀγαθόν, εἴπερ καὶ τῷ ζῶντι <μὲν²>
 μὴ αἰσθανομένῳ δέ, οἷον τιμαὶ καὶ ἀτιμίαι καὶ 20
 τέκνων καὶ ὅλως ἀπογόνων εὐπραξίαι τε καὶ
 4 δυστυχίαι. ἀπορίαν δὲ καὶ ταῦτα παρέχει· τῷ
 γὰρ μακαρίως βεβιωκότι μέχρι γήρως καὶ τελευ-
 τήσαντι κατὰ λόγον ἐνδέχεται πολλὰς μεταβολὰς
 συμβαίνειν περὶ τοὺς ἐκγόνους, καὶ τοὺς μὲν αὐτῶν
 ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι καὶ τυχεῖν βίου τοῦ κατ' ἀξίαν, τοὺς 25
 δ' ἐξ ἐναντίας· δηλὸν δ' ὅτι καὶ τοῖς ἀποστήμασι
 πρὸς τοὺς γονεῖς παντοδαπῶς ἔχειν αὐτοὺς ἐν-
 δέχεται. ἄτοπον δὴ γίνοιτ' ἂν εἰ συµμεταβάλλοι
 καὶ ὁ τεθνεὺς καὶ γίνοιτο ὅτε μὲν εὐδαίμων πάλιν
 5 δ' ἄθλιος· ἄτοπον δὲ καὶ τὸ μηδὲν μηδ' ἐπὶ τινα 30
 χρόνον συνικνεῖσθαι τὰ τῶν ἐκγόνων τοῖς γονεῦσιν.
 6 ἀλλ' ἐπανιτέον ἐπὶ τὸ πρότερον ἀπορηθέν· τάχα
 γὰρ ἂν θεωρηθείη καὶ τὸ νῦν ἐπιζητούμενον ἐξ
 7 ἐκείνου. εἰ δὴ τὸ τέλος ὁρᾶν δεῖ καὶ τότε μακα-
 ρίζειν ἕκαστον οὐχ ὡς ὄντα μακάριον ἀλλ' ὅτι
 πρότερον ἦν, πῶς οὐκ ἄτοπον εἰ, ὅτ' ἐστὶν εὐ-
 δαίμων, μὴ ἀληθεύσεται κατ' αὐτοῦ τὸ ὑπάρχον, 35

¹ τι om. K^b.² Richards.

^a i.e., if our estimate of his life as happy or the reverse had to change. There is no idea of the dead being conscious of what happens to their descendants (cf. § 3 fin.), though this is inconsistently suggested by the wording of § 5.

^b That raised in § 1.^c That raised in § 4.

- 3 define happiness as a form of activity! While if
 on the other hand we refuse to speak of a dead man
 as happy, and Solon's words do not mean this, but
 that only when a man is dead can one safely call
 him blessed as being now beyond the reach of evil
 and misfortune, this also admits of some dispute;
 for it is believed that some evil and also some good
 can befall the dead, just as much as they can happen
 to the living without their being aware of it—for
 instance honours, and disgraces, and the prosperity
 and misfortunes of their children and their descend-
 4 ants in general. But here too there is a difficulty.
 For suppose a man to have lived in perfect happi-
 ness until old age, and to have come to a correspond-
 ingly happy end: he may still have many vicissitudes
 befall his descendants, some of whom may be good
 and meet with the fortune they deserve, and others
 the opposite; and moreover these descendants may
 clearly stand in every possible degree of remoteness
 from the ancestors in question. Now it would be a
 strange thing if the dead man also were to change ^a
 with the fortunes of his family, and were to become
 a happy man at one time and then miserable at
 5 another; yet on the other hand it would also be
 strange if ancestors were not affected at all, even
 over a limited period, by the fortunes of their
 descendants.
- 6 But let us go back to our former difficulty,^b for
 perhaps it will throw light on the question ^c we are
 7 now examining. If we are to look to the end, and
 congratulate a man when dead not as actually being
 blessed, but because he has been blessed in the past,
 surely it is strange if at the actual time when a man
 is happy that fact cannot be truly predicated of

ARISTOTLE

- διὰ τὸ μὴ βούλεσθαι τοὺς ζῶντας εὐδαιμονίζειν 1100
 διὰ τὰς μεταβολὰς καὶ διὰ τὸ μόνιμόν τι τὴν εὐ-
 δαιμονίαν ὑπειληφέναι καὶ μηδαμῶς εὐμετάβολον,
 τὰς δὲ τύχας πολλάκις ἀνακυκλείσθαι περὶ τοὺς
 8 αὐτοὺς; δῆλον γὰρ ὥς εἰ συνακολουθοίημεν ταῖς 5
 τύχαις, τὸν αὐτὸν εὐδαίμονα καὶ πάλιν ἄθλιον
 ἐροῦμεν πολλάκις, “χαμαιλέοντά” τινα τὸν εὐ-
 δαίμονα ἀποφαίνοντες “καὶ σαθρῶς ἰδρυμένον.”
 9 ἢ τὸ μὲν ταῖς τύχαις ἐπακολουθεῖν οὐδαμῶς ὀρθόν;
 οὐ γὰρ ἐν ταύταις τὸ εὖ ἢ κακῶς, ἀλλὰ προσδεύεται
 τούτων ὁ ἀνθρώπινος βίος, καθάπερ εἴπομεν,
 κύριαι δ’ εἰσὶν αἱ κατ’ ἀρετὴν ἐνέργειαι τῆς 10
 10 εὐδαιμονίας, αἱ δ’ ἐναντίαι τοῦ ἐναντίου. μαρ-
 τυρεῖ δὲ τῷ λόγῳ καὶ τὸ νῦν διαπορηθέν. περὶ
 οὐδὲν γὰρ οὕτως ὑπάρχει τῶν ἀνθρωπίνων ἔργων
 βεβαιότης ὥς περὶ τὰς ἐνεργείας τὰς κατ’ ἀρετὴν·
 μονιμώτεραι γὰρ καὶ τῶν ἐπιστημῶν αὗται
 δοκοῦσιν εἶναι· τούτων δ’ αὐτῶν αἱ τιμιώταται 15
 μονιμώτεραι¹ διὰ τὸ μάλιστα καὶ συνεχέστατα
 [κατα]ζῆν² ἐν αὐταῖς τοὺς μακαρίους· τοῦτο γὰρ
 ἔοικεν αἰτίῳ τοῦ μὴ γίνεσθαι περὶ αὐτὰ λήθην.
 11 ὑπάρξει δὴ τὸ ζητούμενον τῷ εὐδαίμονι, καὶ ἔσται
 διὰ βίου τοιοῦτος· αἰεὶ γὰρ ἢ μάλιστα πάντων
 πράξει καὶ θεωρήσει τὰ κατ’ ἀρετὴν. καὶ τὰς τύχας 20

¹ μονιμώταται Ob.

² Coraes.

^a Perhaps a verse from an unknown play.

- him, because we are unwilling to call the living happy owing to the vicissitudes of fortune, and owing to our conception of happiness as something permanent and not readily subject to change, whereas the wheel of fortune often turns full circle in the same person's experience. For it is clear that if we are to be guided by fortune, we shall often have to call the same man first happy and then miserable; we shall make out the happy man to be a sort of "chameleon, or a house built on the sand." ^a
- 9 But perhaps it is quite wrong to be guided in our judgement by the changes of fortune, since true prosperity and adversity do not depend on fortune's favours, although, as we said, our life does require these in addition; but it is the active exercise of our faculties in conformity with virtue that causes happiness, and the opposite activities its opposite.
- 10 And the difficulty just discussed is a further confirmation of our definition; since none of man's functions possess the quality of permanence so fully as the activities in conformity with virtue: they appear to be more lasting even than our knowledge of particular sciences. And among these activities themselves those which are highest in the scale of values are the more lasting, because they most fully and continuously occupy the lives of the supremely happy: for this appears to be the reason why they are not easily forgotten.
- 11 The happy man therefore will possess that element of stability which we demand, and will remain happy all his life; since he will be always or at least most often employed in doing and contemplating the things that are in conformity with virtue. And he

ARISTOTLE

- οἷσει κάλλιστα καὶ πάντῃ πάντως ἔμμελῶς ὃ γ' ὥς ἀληθῶς ἀγαθὸς" καὶ "τετράγωνος ἄνευ
 12 ψόγου." πολλῶν δὲ γινομένων κατὰ τύχην καὶ διαφερόντων μεγέθει καὶ μικρότητι, τὰ μὲν μικρὰ τῶν εὐτυχημάτων, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τῶν ἀντικειμένων, δηλὸν ὥς οὐ ποιεῖ ῥοπήν τῆς ζωῆς, τὰ δὲ 35 μεγάλα καὶ πολλὰ γιγνόμενα μὲν εὖ μακαριώτερον τὸν βίον ποιήσει (καὶ γὰρ αὐτὰ συνεπικοσμεῖν πέφυκεν, καὶ ἡ χρῆσις αὐτῶν καλὴ καὶ σπουδαία γίνεταί), ἀνάπαλιν δὲ συμβαίνοντα θλίβει καὶ λυμαίνεται τὸ μακάριον· λύπας τε γὰρ ἐπιφέρει καὶ ἐμποδίζει πολλαῖς ἐνεργείαις. ὅμως δὲ καὶ 30 ἐν τούτοις διαλάμπει τὸ καλόν, ἐπειδὴν φέρῃ τις εὐκόλως πολλὰς καὶ μεγάλας ἀτυχίας, μὴ δι' ἀναληγσίαν, ἀλλὰ γεννάδας ὧν καὶ μεγαλόψυχος.
- 13 εἰ δ' εἰσὶν αἱ ἐνεργεῖαι κύριαι τῆς ζωῆς, καθάπερ εἴπομεν, οὐδεὶς ἂν γένοιτο τῶν μακαρίων ἄθλιος. οὐδέποτε γὰρ πράξει τὰ μισητὰ καὶ φαῦλα· τὸν 35 γὰρ ὥς ἀληθῶς ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἔμφρονα πάσας οἰόμεθα 1101^a τὰς τύχας εὐσχημόνως φέρειν καὶ ἐκ τῶν ὑπαρχόντων ἀεὶ τὰ κάλλιστα πράττειν, καθάπερ καὶ στρατηγὸν ἀγαθὸν τῷ παρόντι στρατοπέδῳ χρῆσθαι πολεμικώτατα καὶ σκυτοτόμον ἐκ τῶν δοθέντων σκυτῶν κάλλιστον ὑπόδημα ποιεῖν, τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ 5
- 14 τρόπον καὶ τοὺς ἄλλους τεχνίτας ἅπαντας. εἰ δ' οὕτως, ἄθλιος μὲν οὐδέποτε γένοιτ' ἂν ὁ εὐδαίμων· οὐ μὴν μακάριός γε ἂν Πριαμικαῖς τύχαις περιπέσῃ.

^a From the poem of Simonides quoted and discussed in Plato, *Protagoras*, 339.

^b This distinction of the two values of good fortune

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- will bear changes of fortunes most nobly, and with perfect propriety in every way, being as he is 'good in very truth' and 'four-square without reproach.'^a
- 12 But the accidents of fortune are many and vary in degree of magnitude ; and although small pieces of good luck, as also of misfortune, clearly do not change the whole course of life, yet great and repeated successes will render life more blissful, since both of their own nature they help to embellish happiness, and also they can be nobly and virtuously utilized^b ; while great and frequent reverses can crush and mar our bliss both by the pain they cause and by the hindrance they offer to many activities. Yet nevertheless even in adversity nobility shines through, when a man endures repeated and severe misfortune with patience, not owing to insensibility
- 13 but from generosity and greatness of soul. And if, as we said, a man's life is determined by his activities, no supremely happy man can ever become miserable. For he will never do hateful or base actions, since we hold that the truly good and wise man will bear all kinds of fortune in a seemly way, and will always act in the noblest manner that the circumstances allow ; even as a good general makes the most effective use of the forces at his disposal, and a good shoemaker makes the finest shoe possible out of the leather supplied him, and so on with all the other
- 14 crafts and professions. And this being so, the happy man can never become miserable ; though it is true he will not be supremely blessed if he encounters the misfortunes of a Priam. Nor yet recalls the two classes of external goods defined in c. viii. 15, 16 and c. ix. 7.

- οὐδὲ δὴ ποικίλος γε καὶ εὐμετάβολος· οὔτε γὰρ ἐκ
 τῆς εὐδαιμονίας κινήθησεται ῥαδίως, οὐδ' ὑπὸ τῶν 10
 τυχόντων ἀτυχημάτων ἀλλ' ὑπὸ μεγάλων καὶ
 πολλῶν, ἐκ τε τῶν τοιούτων οὐκ ἂν γένοιτο πάλιν
 εὐδαίμων ἐν ὀλίγῳ χρόνῳ, ἀλλ' εἴπερ, ἐν πολλῷ
 τινὶ καὶ τελείῳ, μεγάλων καὶ καλῶν ἐν αὐτῷ
 15 γενόμενος ἐπήβολος. τί οὖν κωλύει λέγειν εὐ-
 δαίμονα τὸν κατ' ἀρετὴν τελείαν ἐνεργοῦντα καὶ 15
 τοῖς ἐκτὸς ἀγαθοῖς ἱκανῶς κεχορηγημένον, μὴ τὸν
 τυχόντα χρόνον ἀλλὰ τέλειον βίον; ἢ προσθετέον
 καὶ βιωσόμενον οὕτω καὶ τελευτήσοντα κατὰ
 λόγον; ἐπειδὴ τὸ μέλλον ἀφανὲς ἡμῖν ἐστίν, τὴν
 εὐδαιμονίαν δὲ τέλος καὶ τέλειον τίθεμεν πάντη
 16 πάντως. εἰ δ' οὕτω, μακαρίους ἐροῦμεν τῶν 20
 ζώντων οἷς ὑπάρχει καὶ ὑπάρξει τὰ λεχθέντα, μακα-
 ρίους δ' ὡς¹ ἀνθρώπους. καὶ περὶ μὲν τούτων ἐπὶ
 τοσοῦτον διωρίσθω.
- xi Τὰς δὲ τῶν ἀπογόνων τύχας καὶ τῶν φίλων
 ἀπάντων τὸ μὲν μηδοτιοῦν συμβάλλεσθαι λίαν
 2 ἀφίλον φαίνεται καὶ ταῖς δόξαις ἐναντίον. πολλῶν
 δὲ καὶ παντοίας ἐχόντων διαφορὰς τῶν συμ- 25
 βαίνοντων καὶ τῶν μὲν μᾶλλον συνικνουμένων
 τῶν δ' ἥττον, καθ' ἕκαστον μὲν διαιρεῖν μακρὸν
 καὶ ἀπέραντον φαίνεται, καθόλου δὲ λεχθέν καὶ
 3 τύπῳ τάχ' ἂν ἱκανῶς ἔχοι. εἰ δὴ, καθάπερ καὶ
 τῶν περὶ αὐτὸν ἀτυχημάτων τὰ μὲν ἔχει τι βριθὸς
 καὶ ῥοπὴν πρὸς τὸν βίον τὰ δ' ἐλαφροτέροις 30

¹ δ' ὡς Γ et fort. Asp. : δ'.

^a Eucken would transpose this clause to the next sentence after 'in the same manner.'

assuredly will he be variable and liable to change ; for he will not be dislodged from his happiness easily, nor by ordinary misfortunes, but only by severe and frequent disasters, nor will he recover from such disasters and become happy again quickly, but only, if at all, after a long term of years, in which he has had time to compass high distinctions and achievements.

- 15 May not we then confidently pronounce that man happy who realizes complete virtue in action, and is adequately furnished with external goods, not^a for any casual period but throughout a complete lifetime? Or should we add, that he must also be destined to go on living in the same manner, and to die accordingly, because the future is hidden from us, and we conceive happiness as an end, something
16 utterly and absolutely final and complete? If this is so, we shall pronounce those of the living who possess and are destined to go on possessing the good things we have specified to be supremely blessed, though on the human scale of bliss.

So much for a discussion of this question.

- xi That the happiness of the dead is not influenced at all by the fortunes of their descendants and their friends in general seems too heartless a doctrine,
2 and contrary to accepted beliefs. But the accidents of life are many and diverse, and vary in the degree in which they affect us. To distinguish between them in detail would clearly be a long and indeed endless undertaking, and a general treatment in
3 outline may perhaps be enough. Even our own misfortunes, then, though in some cases they exercise considerable weight and influence upon the course of our lives, in other cases^b seem comparatively un-

Revised definition of Happiness.

Happiness how far modified after death by fortunes of descendants.

ARISTOTLE

- ἔοικεν, οὕτω καὶ τὰ περὶ τοὺς φίλους ὁμοίως
 4 ἅπαντας, διαφέρει δὲ τῶν παθῶν ἕκαστον περὶ
 ζῶντας ἢ τελευτήσαντας συμβαίνειν πολὺ μᾶλλον
 ἢ τὰ παράνομα καὶ δεινὰ προϋπάρχειν ἐν ταῖς
 5 τραγωδίαις ἢ πράττεσθαι, συλλογιστέον δὴ καὶ
 ταύτην τὴν διαφορὰν, <ἔτι>¹ μᾶλλον δ' ἴσως τὸ 35
 διαπορεῖσθαι περὶ τοὺς κεκμηκότας εἴ τινος
 ἀγαθοῦ κοινωνοῦσιν ἢ τῶν ἀντικειμένων· ἔοικε 1101 b
 γὰρ ἐκ τούτων, εἰ καὶ διικνεῖται πρὸς αὐτοὺς
 ὅτιοῦν εἴτ' ἀγαθὸν εἴτε τούναντίον, ἀφαιρόν² τι
 καὶ μικρὸν ἢ ἀπλῶς ἢ ἐκείνοις εἶναι, εἰ δὲ μή,
 τοσοῦτόν γε καὶ τοιοῦτον ὥστε μὴ ποιεῖν εὐδαί-
 μονας τοὺς μὴ ὄντας μηδὲ τοὺς ὄντας ἀφαιρεῖσθαι 5
 6 τὸ μακάριον. συμβάλλεσθαι μὲν οὖν τι φαίνονται
 τοῖς κεκμηκόσιν αἱ εὐπραξίαι τῶν φίλων, ὁμοίως
 δὲ καὶ αἱ δυσπραξίαι, τοιαῦτα δὲ καὶ τηλικαῦτα
 ὥστε μήτε τοὺς εὐδαίμονας μὴ εὐδαίμονας ποιεῖν
 μήτ' ἄλλο τῶν τοιούτων μηδέν.
 xii Διωρισμένων δὲ τούτων ἐπισκεψώμεθα περὶ τῆς 10
 εὐδαιμονίας πότερα τῶν ἐπαινετῶν ἐστὶν ἢ μᾶλλον
 τῶν τιμίων· δῆλον γὰρ ὅτι τῶν γε δυνάμεων οὐκ
 2 ἔστιν. φαίνεται δὴ πᾶν τὸ ἐπαινετὸν τῷ ποιόν
 τι εἶναι καὶ πρὸς τί πως ἔχειν ἐπαινεῖσθαι· τὸν
 γὰρ δίκαιον καὶ τὸν ἀνδρεῖον καὶ ὅλως τὸν ἀγαθόν 15
 καὶ τὴν ἀρετὴν ἐπαινοῦμεν διὰ τὰς πράξεις καὶ
 τὰ ἔργα, καὶ τὸν ἰσχυρὸν καὶ τὸν δρομικόν καὶ

¹ Richards.

² φλαυρόν K^b: ἀμαυρόν? Bywater.

^a The definition of happiness is now shown to be supported by the current terms of moral approbation: apparently ἐπαινετόν, 'praiseworthy' or 'commendable,' was appropriate to means, or things having relative value, and τίμιον, 'honoured' or 'revered,' to ends, or things of absolute value.

important; and the same is true of the misfortunes
 4 of our friends of all degrees. Also it makes a great
 difference whether any calamity happens during
 one's lifetime or when one is dead, much more so
 than it does in a tragedy whether the crimes and
 horrors are assumed to have taken place beforehand
 5 or are enacted on the stage. We ought therefore
 to take this difference also into account, and still
 more perhaps the doubt that exists whether the
 dead really participate in good or evil at all. For
 the above considerations seem to show that even if
 any good or evil does penetrate to them, the effect
 is only small and trifling, either intrinsically or in
 relation to them, or if not trifling, at all events not
 of such magnitude and kind as to make the unhappy
 happy or to rob the happy of their blessedness.

6 It does then appear that the dead are influenced
 in some measure by the good fortune of their friends,
 and likewise by their misfortunes, but that the
 effect is not of such a kind or degree as to render
 the happy unhappy or *vice versa*.

xii These questions being settled, let us consider
 whether happiness is one of the things we praise
 or rather one of those that we honour^a; for it is at
 all events clear that it is not a mere potentiality.^b

Happiness
 the End
 proved by
 terms ex-
 pressing
 value.

2 Now it appears that a thing which we praise is
 always praised because it has a certain quality and
 stands in a certain relation to something. For we
 praise just men and brave men, in fact good men
 and virtue generally, because of their actions and
 the results they produce; and also we praise those
 who are strong of body, swift of foot and the like

^b i.e., not merely a potentiality of good but an actual
 good, whether as means or end.

ARISTOTLE

τῶν ἄλλων ἕκαστον τῷ ποιόν τινα πεφυκέναι καὶ
 3 ἔχειν πως πρὸς ἀγαθόν τι καὶ σπουδαῖον. δῆλον
 δὲ τοῦτο καὶ ἐκ τῶν περὶ τοὺς θεοὺς ἐπαινῶν.
 γελοῖοι γὰρ φαίνονται πρὸς ἡμᾶς ἀναφερόμενοι, 20
 τοῦτο δὲ συμβαίνει διὰ τὸ γίνεσθαι τοὺς ἐπαινους
 4 δι' ἀναφορᾶς, ὥσπερ εἵπομεν. εἰ δ' ἐστὶν ὁ
 ἔπαινος τῶν τοιούτων, δῆλον ὅτι τῶν ἀρίστων
 οὐκ ἔστιν ἔπαινος, ἀλλὰ μείζον τι καὶ βέλτιον,
 καθάπερ καὶ φαίνεται. τοὺς τε γὰρ θεοὺς μακα-
 ρίζομεν καὶ εὐδαιμονίζομεν καὶ τῶν ἀνδρῶν τοὺς
 θειοτάτους μακαρίζομεν. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τῶν 25
 ἀγαθῶν. οὐδεὶς γὰρ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν ἐπαινεῖ
 καθάπερ τὸ δίκαιον, ἀλλ' ὥς θειότερόν τι καὶ
 5 βέλτιον μακαρίζει. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ Εὐδόξος καλῶς
 συνηγορήσαι περὶ τῶν ἀριστείων τῇ ἡδονῇ. τὸ
 γὰρ μὴ ἐπαινέσθαι τῶν ἀγαθῶν οὖσαν μνηύειν
 ᾤετο ὅτι κρείττον ἐστὶ τῶν ἐπαινετῶν, τοιούτον 30
 δ' εἶναι τὸν θεὸν καὶ τ' ἀγαθόν, πρὸς ταῦτα γὰρ
 6 καὶ τὰλλα ἀναφέρεσθαι. ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἔπαινος τῆς
 ἀρετῆς, πρακτικοὶ γὰρ τῶν καλῶν ἀπὸ ταύτης.
 τὰ δ' ἐγκώμια τῶν ἔργων, ὁμοίως καὶ τῶν σω-
 7 ματικῶν καὶ τῶν ψυχικῶν. ἀλλὰ ταῦτα μὲν

^a But we do not praise them.

^b For a criticism of the hedonism of this unorthodox pupil of Plato see x. ii, iii.

^c Encomia or laudatory orations are the chief constituent of Epideictic or Declamatory Oratory, one of the three branches (the others being Deliberative and Forensic) into which rhetoric is divided by Aristotle (*Rhet.* i. iii.). The topics of encomia are virtue and vice, the noble and disgraceful, which are analysed from this point of view in

on account of their possessing certain natural qualities, and standing in a certain relation to something
 3 good and excellent. The point is also illustrated by our feeling about praises addressed to the gods : it strikes us as absurd that the gods should be referred to our standards, and this is what praising them amounts to, since praise, as we said, involves
 4 a reference of its object to something else. But if praise belongs to what is relative, it is clear that the best things do not merit praise, but something greater and better : as indeed is generally recognized, since we speak of the gods as blessed and happy,^a and also 'blessed' is the term that we apply to the most godlike men ; and similarly with good things—no one praises happiness as one praises justice, but we call it 'a blessing,' deeming it something higher and more divine than things we praise.

5 Indeed it seems that Eudoxus^b took a good line in advocating the claims of pleasure to the prize of highest excellence, when he held that the fact that pleasure, though a good, is not praised, is an indication that it is superior to the things we praise, as God and the Good are, because they are the standards to which everything else is referred.

6 For praise belongs to virtue, since it is this that makes men capable of accomplishing noble deeds, while encomia^c are for deeds accomplished, whether
 7 bodily feats or achievements of the mind. However,

Rhet. I. ix. That chapter contains a parenthesis (§§ 33, 34) distinguishing praise, as proper to πράξεις, actions in operation, from encomia, which belong to ἐργα, the results achieved by action ; but this distinction is not maintained in the context (§ 35, and cf. § 2• where God as well as man is given as an object of praise).

ARISTOTLE

- ἴσως οἰκειότερον ἐξακριβοῦν τοῖς περὶ τὰ ἐγκώμια ³⁵
 πεπονημένοις, ἡμῖν δὲ δῆλον ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων ¹¹⁰
 ὅτι ἐστὶν ἡ εὐδαιμονία τῶν τιμίων καὶ τελείων.
 8 ἔοικε δ' οὕτως ἔχειν καὶ διὰ τὸ εἶναι ἀρχή· ταύτης
 γὰρ χάριν τὰ λοιπὰ πάντα πάντες πράττομεν, τὴν
 ἀρχὴν δὲ καὶ τὸ αἴτιον τῶν ἀγαθῶν τίμιόν τι καὶ
 θεῖον τίθεμεν.
- xiii Ἐπεὶ δ' ἐστὶν ἡ εὐδαιμονία ψυχῆς ἐνέργειά ⁵
 τις κατ' ἀρετὴν τελείαν, περὶ ἀρετῆς ἐπισκεπτέον·
 τάχα γὰρ οὕτως ἂν βέλτιον καὶ περὶ τῆς εὐδαι-
 2 μονίας θεωρήσαιμεν. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ ὁ κατ' ἀλήθειαν
 πολιτικὸς περὶ ταύτην μάλιστα πεπονήσθαι· βού-
 λεται γὰρ τοὺς πολίτας ἀγαθοὺς ποιεῖν καὶ τῶν
 3 νόμων ὑπηκόους (παράδειγμα δὲ τούτων ἔχομεν ¹⁰
 τοὺς Κρητῶν καὶ Λακεδαιμονίων νομοθέτας, καὶ
 4 εἴ τινας ἕτεροι τοιοῦτοι γεγέννηται). εἰ δὲ τῆς
 πολιτικῆς ἐστὶν ἡ σκέψις αὕτη, δῆλον ὅτι γίνονται
 ἂν ἡ ζήτησις κατὰ τὴν ἐξ ἀρχῆς προαίρεσιν.
 5 περὶ ἀρετῆς δὲ ἐπισκεπτέον ἀνθρωπίνης δῆλον ὅτι·
 καὶ γὰρ τὰγαθὸν ἀνθρώπινον ἐζητοῦμεν καὶ τὴν ¹⁵
 6 εὐδαιμονίαν ἀνθρωπίνην. ἀρετὴν δὲ λέγομεν ἀνθρω-
 πίνην οὐ τὴν τοῦ σώματος ἀλλὰ τὴν τῆς ψυχῆς·
 καὶ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν δὲ ψυχῆς ἐνέργειαν λέγομεν.
 7 εἰ δὲ ταῦθ' οὕτως ἔχει, δῆλον ὅτι δεῖ τὸν πολι-
 τικὸν εἰδέναι πως τὰ περὶ ψυχῆς,¹ ὥσπερ καὶ τὸν
 ὀφθαλμοὺς θεραπεύοντα καὶ πᾶν <τὸ>² σῶμα, ²⁰

¹ ψυχῆς K^b: ψυχὴν.² Ramsauer.

^a The context seems to disprove the alternative rendering 'just as to cure the eye the physician must know the structure of the whole of the body as well.' The illustration is a reminiscence of Plato, *Charmides*, 156 B-E, but does not follow that passage exactly.

to develop this subject is perhaps rather the business of those who have made a study of *encomia*. For our purpose we may draw the conclusion from the foregoing remarks, that happiness is a thing honoured and perfect. This seems to be borne out by the fact that it is a first principle or starting-point, since all other things that all men do are done for its sake ; and that which is the first principle and cause of things good we agree to be something honourable and divine.

- xiii But inasmuch as happiness is a certain activity of soul in conformity with perfect virtue, it is necessary to examine the nature of virtue. For this will probably assist us in our investigation of the nature of happiness. Also, the true statesman seems to be one who has made a special study of virtue, since his aim is to make the citizens good and law-abiding men—witness the lawgivers of Crete and Sparta, and the other great legislators of history ; but if the study of virtue falls within the province of Political Science, it is clear that in investigating virtue we shall be keeping to the plan which we laid down at the outset.
- 5 Now the virtue that we have to consider is clearly human virtue, since the good or happiness which we set out to seek is human good and human happiness. But human virtue means in our view excellence of soul, not excellence of body ; indeed our definition of happiness is an activity of the soul.
- 7 Now if this is so, clearly it behoves the statesman to have some acquaintance with psychology, just as the physician who is to heal the eye or the other parts of the body ^a must know their anatomy.

Bks. I.
xiii-VI.
Analysis of
definition of
Happiness.
c. xiii. The
Soul, its
parts and
their
Virtues.

ARISTOTLE

- καὶ μᾶλλον ὅσω τιμιωτέρα καὶ βελτίων ἡ πολιτικὴ
 τῆς ἱατρικῆς· τῶν δ' ἱατρῶν οἱ χαρίεντες πολλὰ
 πραγματεύονται περὶ τὴν τοῦ σώματος γνῶσιν.
 8 θεωρητέον δὴ καὶ τῷ πολιτικῷ περὶ ψυχῆς,
 θεωρητέον δὲ τούτων χάριν, καὶ ἐφ' ὅσον ἱκανῶς 25
 ἔχει πρὸς τὰ ζητούμενα· τὸ γὰρ ἐπὶ πλεῶν
 ἐξακριβοῦν ἐργαδέστερον ἴσως ἐστὶ τῶν προ-
 9 κειμένων. λέγεται δὲ περὶ αὐτῆς καὶ ἐν τοῖς
 ἐξωτερικοῖς λόγοις ἀρκούντως ἑνια, καὶ χρηστέον
 αὐτοῖς· οἷον τὸ μὲν ἄλογον αὐτῆς εἶναι, τὸ δὲ
 10 λόγον ἔχον (ταῦτα δὲ πότερον διώρισται καθάπερ 30
 τὰ τοῦ σώματος μόρια καὶ πᾶν τὸ μεριστόν, ἢ τῷ
 λόγῳ δύο ἐστὶν ἀχώριστα πεφυκότα καθάπερ ἐν
 τῇ περιφερείᾳ τὸ κυρτόν καὶ τὸ κοῖλον, οὐθὲν
 11 διαφέρει πρὸς τὸ παρόν). τοῦ ἀλόγου δὲ τὸ μὲν
 ἔοικε κοινῷ καὶ φυτικῷ, λέγω δὲ τὸ αἴτιον τοῦ
 τρέφεσθαι καὶ αὔξεσθαι· τὴν τοιαύτην γὰρ δύναμιν 1102 b
 τῆς ψυχῆς ἐν ᾧασι τοῖς τρεφομένοις θεΐη τις
 ἂν, καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἐμβρύοις, τὴν αὐτὴν δὲ ταύτην
 καὶ ἐν τοῖς τελείοις, εὐλογώτερον γὰρ ἢ ἄλλην
 12 τινά. ταύτης μὲν οὖν κοινὴ τις ἀρετὴ καὶ οὐκ

^a πολιτικός means for Aristotle both "political scientist" and "statesman": for him they are the same thing, since πολιτικὴ is a practical science.

^b These ἐξωτερικοὶ λόγοι are also mentioned in vi. iv. 2 and six other places in Aristotle (see Ross on *Met.* 1076 a 28). In *Pol.* 1323 a 22 they are appealed to for the tripartite classification of goods which in c. viii. 2 above is ascribed to current opinion 'of long standing and generally accepted by students of philosophy.' The phrase therefore seems to denote arguments or doctrines (whether familiar in philosophic debates, for which see note on c. v. 6, or actually recorded in books), that were not peculiar to the Peripatetic school; in some cases, as here, it may refer specially to the tenets of the Academy.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, I. xiii. 7-12

Indeed a foundation of science is even more requisite for the statesman, inasmuch as politics is a higher and more honourable art than medicine; but physicians of the better class devote much attention
8 to the study of the human body. The student of politics^a therefore as well as the psychologist must study the nature of the soul, though he will do so as an aid to politics, and only so far as is requisite for the objects of enquiry that he has in view: to pursue the subject in further detail would doubtless be more laborious than is necessary for his purpose.

9 Now on the subject of psychology some of the teaching current in extraneous discourses^b is satisfactory, and may be adopted here: namely that the soul consists of two parts, one irrational and the
10 other capable of reason.^c (Whether these two parts are really distinct in the sense that the parts of the body or of any other divisible whole are distinct, or whether though distinguishable in thought as two they are inseparable in reality, like the convex and concave sides of a curve, is a question of no import-
11 ance for the matter in hand.) Of the irrational part of the soul again one division appears to be common to all living things, and of a vegetative nature: I refer to the part that causes nutrition and growth; for we must assume that a vital faculty of this nature exists in all things that assimilate nourishment, including embryos—the same faculty being present also in the fully-developed organism (this is more reasonable than to assume a different nutritive
12 faculty in the latter). The excellence of this faculty therefore appears to be common to all animate

^a Literally "having a plan or principle."

ARISTOTLE

ἀνθρωπίνη φαίνεται· δοκεῖ γὰρ ἐν τοῖς ὕπνοις
 ἐνεργεῖν μάλιστα τὸ μόριον τοῦτο καὶ ἡ δύναμις 5
 αὕτη, ὃ δ' ἀγαθὸς καὶ κακὸς ἥκιστα διάδηλοι
 καθ' ὕπνον (ὅθεν φασὶν οὐδὲν διαφέρειν τὸ ἥμισυ
 13 τοῦ βίου τοὺς εὐδαίμονας τῶν ἀθλίων). συμβαίνει
 δὲ τοῦτο εἰκότως· ἀργία γὰρ ἐστὶν ὁ ὕπνος τῆς
 ψυχῆς ἥ λέγεται σπουδαία καὶ φαύλη, πλὴν εἴ
 πη κατὰ μικρὸν διικνουῦνταί τινες τῶν κινήσεων,
 καὶ ταύτῃ βελτίω γίνεται τὰ φαντάσματα τῶν 10
 14 ἐπιεικῶν ἢ τῶν τυχόντων. ἀλλὰ περὶ μὲν τούτων
 ἄλλης, καὶ τὸ θρεπτικὸν ἑατέον, ἐπειδὴ τῆς ἀν-
 15 θρωπικῆς ἀρετῆς ἄμοιρον πέφυκεν. ἔοικε δὲ καὶ
 ἄλλη τις φύσις τῆς ψυχῆς ἄλογος εἶναι, μετέχουσα
 μέντοι πη λόγου. τοῦ γὰρ ἐγκρατοῦς καὶ ἀκρατοῦς
 τὸν <μὲν>¹ λόγον καὶ τῆς ψυχῆς τὸ λόγον ἔχον 15
 ἐπαινούμεν (ὀρθῶς γὰρ καὶ ἐπὶ τὰ βέλτιστα
 παρακαλεῖ), φαίνεται δ' ἐν αὐτοῖς καὶ ἄλλο τι
 παρὰ τὸν λόγον πεφυκός, ὃ μάχεται καὶ ἀντιτείνει
 16 τῷ λόγῳ. ἀτεχνῶς γὰρ καθάπερ τὰ παραλελυ-
 μένων τοῦ σώματος μόρια εἰς τὰ δεξιὰ προαιρου-
 μένων κινῆσαι τοῦναντίον εἰς τὰ ἀριστερὰ παρα- 20
 φέρεται, καὶ ἐπὶ τῆς ψυχῆς οὕτως· ἐπὶ τὰναντία
 γὰρ αἱ ὁρμαὶ τῶν ἀκρατῶν. ἀλλ' ἐν τοῖς σώμασι
 μὲν ὀρῶμεν τὸ παραφερόμενον, ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς ψυχῆς
 οὐχ ὀρῶμεν· ἴσως δ' οὐδὲν ἦττον καὶ ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ
 νομιστέον εἶναί τι παρὰ τὸν λόγον, ἐναντιούμενον

¹ Richards.

^a For these terms see Bk. VII. init.

- things and not peculiar to man ; for it is believed that this faculty or part of the soul is most active during sleep, but when they are asleep you cannot tell a good man from a bad one (whence the saying that for half their lives there is no difference between
13 the happy and the miserable). This is a natural result of the fact that sleep is a cessation of the soul from the functions on which its goodness or badness depend—except that in some small degree certain of the bodily processes may emerge into consciousness during sleep, and consequently the dreams of the good are better than those of ordinary men.
14 We need not however pursue this subject further, but may omit from consideration the nutritive part of the soul, since it exhibits no specifically human excellence.
15 But there also appears to be another element in the soul, which, though irrational, yet in a manner participates in rational principle. In self-restrained and unrestrained ^a people we approve their principle, or the rational part of their souls, because it urges them in the right way and exhorts them for their good ; but their nature seems also to contain another element beside that of rational principle, which
16 combats and resists that principle. Exactly the same thing may take place in the soul as occurs with the body in a case of paralysis : when the patient wills to move his limbs to the right they swerve to the left ; and similarly in unrestrained persons their impulses run counter to their principle. But whereas in the body we see the erratic member, in the case of the soul we do not see it ; nevertheless it cannot be doubted that in the soul also there is an element beside that of principle,

τούτῳ καὶ ἀντιβαῖνον (πῶς δ' ἕτερον, οὐδὲν ²⁵
 17 διαφέρει). λόγου δὲ καὶ τοῦτο φαίνεται μετέχειν,
 ὥσπερ εἵπομεν· πειθαρχεῖ γοῦν τῷ λόγῳ τὸ τοῦ
 ἐγκρατοῦς, ἔτι δ' ἴσως εὐηκοώτερόν ἐστι τὸ τοῦ
 σώφρονος καὶ ἀνδρείου, πάντα γὰρ ὁμοφωνεῖ τῷ
 18 λόγῳ. φαίνεται δὴ καὶ τὸ ἄλογον διττόν· τὸ μὲν
 γὰρ φυτικὸν οὐδαμῶς κοινωνεῖ λόγου, τὸ δ' ἐπι- ³⁰
 θυμητικὸν καὶ ὅλως ὀρεκτικὸν μετέχει πως, ἢ
 κατήκοόν ἐστιν αὐτοῦ καὶ πειθαρχικόν (οὕτω δὴ
 καὶ τοῦ πατρὸς καὶ τῶν φίλων φάμεν ἔχειν λόγον,
 καὶ οὐχ ὥσπερ τῶν μαθηματικῶν). ὅτι δὲ πεί-
 θεται πως ὑπὸ λόγου τὸ ἄλογον, μὲνυει καὶ ἡ
 νουθέτησις καὶ πᾶσα ἐπιτίμησις τε καὶ παρά- ¹¹⁰³
 19 κλησις. εἰ δὲ χρή καὶ τοῦτο φάναι λόγον ἔχειν,
 διττόν ἐσται καὶ ¹ τὸ λόγον ἔχον, τὸ μὲν κυρίως
 καὶ ἐν αὐτῷ, τὸ δ' ὥσπερ τοῦ πατρὸς ἀκουστικόν
 20 [τι].² διορίζεται δὲ καὶ ἡ ἀρετὴ κατὰ τὴν
 διαφορὰν ταύτην· λέγομεν γὰρ αὐτῶν τὰς μὲν ⁵
 διανοητικὰς τὰς δὲ ἠθικάς, σοφίαν μὲν καὶ σύνεσιν

¹ [καί] Coraes.² [τι] om. K^b.

^a This parenthetical note on the phrase 'to have *logos*' is untranslatable, and confusing even in the Greek. According to the psychology here expounded, the intellect 'has a plan or principle,' in the sense of understanding principle, and being able to reason and make a plan: in other words, it is fully rational. The appetitive part of man's nature 'has a plan or principle' in so far as it is capable of following or obeying a principle. It happens that this relationship of following or obeying can itself be expressed by the words 'to have *logos*' in another sense of that phrase, viz. 'to take account of, pay heed to.' To be precise the writer should say that the appetitive part λόγον ἔχει τοῦ λόγου, 'has *logos* (takes account) of the *logos*.' The phrase has yet a third sense in mathematics, where "to have *logos*"

- which opposes and runs counter to principle (though in what sense the two are distinct does not concern us here). But this second element also seems, as we said, to participate in rational principle; at least in the self-restrained man it obeys the behest of principle—and no doubt in the temperate and brave man it is still more amenable, for all parts of his nature are in harmony with principle.
- 18 Thus we see that the irrational part, as well as the soul as a whole, is double. One division of it, the vegetative, does not share in rational principle at all; the other, the seat of the appetites and of desire in general, does in a sense participate in principle, as being amenable and obedient to it (in the sense in fact in which we speak of 'paying heed' to one's father and friends, not in the sense of the term 'rational' in mathematics^a). And that principle can in a manner appeal to the irrational part, is indicated by our practice of admonishing delinquents, and by our employment of rebuke and exhortation generally.
- 19 If on the other hand it be more correct to speak of the appetitive part of the soul also as rational, in that case it is the rational part which, as well as the whole soul, is divided into two, the one division having rational principle in the proper sense and in itself, the other in the sense in which a child listens to its father.
- 20 Now virtue also is differentiated in correspondence with this division of the soul. Some forms of virtue are called intellectual virtues, others moral virtues: Wisdom, Understanding, and Prudence are intellectual (*ratio*) means "to be rational" in the sense of commensurable.

ARISTOTLE

καὶ φρόνησιν διανοητικάς, ἐλευθεριότητα δὲ καὶ σωφροσύνην ἠθικάς. λέγοντες γὰρ περὶ τοῦ ἡθους οὐ λέγομεν ὅτι σοφὸς ἢ συνετὸς ἀλλ' ὅτι πρᾶος ἢ σώφρων· ἐπαινοῦμεν δὲ καὶ τὸν σοφὸν κατὰ τὴν ἕξιν, τῶν ἕξεων δὲ τὰς ἐπαινετὰς ἀρετὰς ¹⁰ λέγομεν.

^a Viz., Wisdom, which is therefore a virtue, though not a

lectual, Liberality and Temperance are moral virtues. When describing a man's moral character we do not say that he is wise or intelligent, but gentle or temperate ; but a wise man also is praised for his disposition,^a and praiseworthy dispositions we term virtues.

virtue in the narrower sense of moral virtue. Throughout Aristotle's ethical works, praise and blame are the ordinary tests of virtue and vice. (See also c. xii.)

B

- i Διττῆς δὴ¹ τῆς ἀρετῆς οὐσης, τῆς μὲν διανοητικῆς
 τῆς δὲ ἠθικῆς, ἣ μὲν διανοητικὴ τὸ πλεῖον ἐκ¹⁵
 διδασκαλίας ἔχει καὶ τὴν γένεσιν καὶ τὴν αὔξησιν,
 διόπερ ἐμπειρίας δεῖται καὶ χρόνου· ἣ δ' ἠθικὴ
 ἐξ ἔθους περιγίνεται, ὅθεν καὶ τοῦνομα ἔσχηκε
 2 μικρὸν παρεκκλῖνον ἀπὸ τοῦ ἔθους. ἐξ οὗ καὶ
 δῆλον ὅτι οὐδεμία τῶν ἠθικῶν ἀρετῶν φύσει
 ἡμῖν ἐγγίνεται· οὐθὲν γὰρ τῶν φύσει ὄντων ἄλλως²
 ἐθίζεται, οἷον ὁ λίθος φύσει κάτω φερόμενος
 οὐκ ἂν ἐθισθείη ἄνω φέρεσθαι, οὐδ' ἂν μυριάκις
 αὐτὸν ἐθίζῃ τις ἄνω ρίπτων, οὐδὲ τὸ πῦρ κάτω,
 οὐδ' ἄλλο οὐδὲν τῶν ἄλλως πεφυκότων ἄλλως
 3 ἂν ἐθισθείη. οὗτ' ἄρα φύσει οὔτε παρὰ φύσιν
 ἐγγίνονται αἱ ἀρεταί, ἀλλὰ πεφυκόσι μὲν ἡμῖν²⁵
 δέξασθαι αὐτάς, τελειουμένοις δὲ διὰ τοῦ ἔθους.
 4 ἔτι ὅσα μὲν φύσει ἡμῖν παραγίνεται, τὰς δυνάμεις
 τούτων πρότερον κοιμίζόμεθα, ὕστερον δὲ τὰς
 ἐνεργείας ἀποδίδομεν (ὅπερ ἐπὶ τῶν αἰσθήσεων

¹ δὴ Susemihl: δὲ.

² ὄντων <ἄλλως> ἄλλως? Richards.

^a It is probable that *ἔθος*, 'habit' and *ἦθος*, 'character' (whence 'ethical,' moral) are kindred words.

^b *ἀρετή* is here as often in this and the following Books employed in the limited sense of 'moral excellence' or

BOOK II

- i VIRTUE being, as we have seen, of two kinds, intellectual and moral, intellectual virtue is for the most part both produced and increased by instruction, and therefore requires experience and time ; whereas moral or ethical virtue is the product of habit (*ethos*), and has indeed derived its name, with a slight variation of form, from that word.^a And therefore it is clear that none of the moral virtues is engendered in us by nature, for no natural property can be altered by habit. For instance, it is the nature of a stone to move downwards, and it cannot be trained to move upwards, even though you should try to train it to do so by throwing it up into the air ten thousand times ; nor can fire be trained to move downwards, nor can anything else that naturally behaves in one way be trained into a habit of behaving in another way. The virtues^b therefore are engendered in us neither by nature nor yet in violation of nature ; nature gives us the capacity to receive them, and this capacity is brought to maturity by habit.
- 4 Moreover, the faculties given us by nature are bestowed on us first in a potential form ; we develop their actual exercise afterwards. This is clearly so

Bks. II-V.
The Moral
Virtues.
cc. I-VI ;
Nature of
Moral
Virtue.
c. I. Moral
Virtue a
Habit of
right action,
formed by
acting
rightly.

^a 'goodness of character,' *i.e.* virtue in the ordinary sense of the term.

ARISTOTLE

δῆλον· οὐ γὰρ ἐκ τοῦ πολλάκις ἰδεῖν ἢ πολλάκις
 ἀκούσαι τὰς αἰσθήσεις ἐλάβομεν, ἀλλ' ἀνάπαλιν ³⁰
 ἔχοντες ἐχρησάμεθα, οὐ χρησάμενοι ἔσχομεν). τὰς
 δ' ἀρετὰς λαμβάνομεν ἐνεργήσαντες πρότερον,
 ὥσπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων τεχνῶν· ἃ γὰρ δεῖ
 μαθόντας ποιεῖν, ταῦτα ποιῶντες μαθησάμενοι,
 οἷον οἰκοδομοῦντες οἰκοδόμοι γίνονται καὶ κιθαρί-
 ζοντες κιθαρισταί· οὕτω δὲ καὶ τὰ μὲν δίκαιοι ^{1103 b}
 πράττοντες δίκαιοι γινόμεθα, τὰ δὲ σώφρονα
⁵ σώφρονες, τὰ δ' ἀνδρεία ἀνδρεῖοι. μαρτυρεῖ δὲ
 καὶ τὸ γινόμενον ἐν ταῖς πόλεσιν· οἱ γὰρ νομοθέται
 τοὺς πολίτας ἐθίζοντες ποιοῦσιν ἀγαθοὺς, καὶ
 τὸ μὲν βούλημα παντὸς νομοθέτου τοῦτ' ἐστίν, ⁵
 ὅσοι δὲ μὴ εὖ αὐτὸ ποιοῦσιν, ἀμαρτάνουσιν, καὶ
 διαφέρει τούτῳ πολιτεία πολιτείας ἀγαθὴ φαύλης.
⁶ ἔτι ἐκ τῶν αὐτῶν καὶ διὰ τῶν αὐτῶν καὶ γίνεται
 πᾶσα ἀρετὴ καὶ φθείρεται, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τέχνη·
 ἐκ γὰρ τοῦ κιθαρίζειν καὶ οἱ ἀγαθοὶ καὶ οἱ κακοὶ
 γίνονται κιθαρισταί· ἀνάλογον δὲ καὶ οἱ οἰκοδόμοι ¹⁰
 καὶ οἱ λοιποὶ πάντες· ἐκ μὲν γὰρ τοῦ εὖ οἰκοδομεῖν
 ἀγαθοὶ οἰκοδόμοι ἔσονται, ἐκ δὲ τοῦ κακῶς
⁷ κακοί· εἰ γὰρ μὴ οὕτως εἶχεν, οὐδὲν ἂν ἔδει τοῦ
 διδάξοντος, ἀλλὰ πάντες ἂν ἐγίνοντο ἀγαθοὶ ἢ
 κακοί. οὕτω ἔη καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν ἔχει· πράτ-
 τοῖτες γὰρ τὰ ἐν τοῖς συναλλάγμασι τοῖς πρὸς ¹⁵
 τοὺς ἀνθρώπους γινόμεθα οἱ μὲν δίκαιοι οἱ δὲ
 ἄδικοι, πράττοντες δὲ τὰ ἐν τοῖς δεινοῖς καὶ
 ἐθιζόμενοι φοβεῖσθαι ἢ θαρρεῖν οἱ μὲν ἀνδρεῖοι

¹ δὴ L^b.

^a Or possibly 'For things that we have to learn to do [in contrast with things that we do by nature], we learn by doing them.'

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. i. 4-7

with our senses : we did not acquire the faculty of sight or hearing by repeatedly seeing or repeatedly listening, but the other way about—because we had the senses we began to use them, we did not get them by using them. The virtues on the other hand we acquire by first having actually practised them, just as we do the arts. We learn an art or craft by doing the things that we shall have to do when we have learnt it^a : for instance, men become builders by building houses, harpers by playing on the harp. Similarly we become just by doing just acts, temperate by doing temperate acts, brave by
5 doing brave acts. This truth is attested by the experience of states : lawgivers make the citizens good by training them in habits of right action—this is the aim of all legislation, and if it fails to do this it is a failure ; this is what distinguishes a good
6 form of constitution from a bad one. Again, the actions from or through which any virtue is produced are the same as those through which it also is destroyed—just as is the case with skill in the arts, for both the good harpers and the bad ones are produced by harping, and similarly with builders and all the other craftsmen : as you will become a good builder from building well, so you will become
7 a bad one from building badly. Were this not so, there would be no need for teachers of the arts, but everybody would be born a good or bad craftsman as the case might be. The same then is true of the virtues. It is by taking part in transactions with our fellow-men that some of us become just and others unjust ; by acting in dangerous situations and forming a habit of fear or of confidence we

οἱ δὲ δειλοί· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὰ περὶ τὰς ἐπιθυμίας
 ἔχει καὶ τὰ περὶ τὰς ὀργάς· οἱ μὲν γὰρ σώφρονες
 καὶ πρᾶοι γίνονται, οἱ δ' ἀκόλαστοι καὶ ὀργίλοι, ²⁰
 οἱ μὲν ἐκ τοῦ οὕτως ἐν αὐτοῖς ἀναστρέφεσθαι,
 οἱ δὲ ἐκ τοῦ οὕτως· καὶ ἐνὶ δὴ λόγῳ ἐκ τῶν
 8 ὁμοίων ἐνεργειῶν αἱ ἕξεις γίνονται. διὸ δεῖ τὰς
 ἐνεργείας ποιάς ἀποδιδόναι· κατὰ γὰρ τὰς τούτων
 διαφορὰς ἀκολουθοῦσιν αἱ ἕξεις. οὐ μικρὸν οὖν
 διαφέρει τὸ οὕτως ἢ οὕτως εὐθὺς ἐκ νέων ἐθίζεσθαι,
 ἀλλὰ πάμπολυ, μᾶλλον δὲ τὸ πᾶν. ²⁵

- ii Ἐπεὶ οὖν ἡ παρούσα πραγματεία οὐ θεωρίας
 ἕνεκά ἐστιν ὥσπερ αἱ ἄλλαι (οὐ γὰρ ἔν' εἰδῶμεν
 τί ἐστιν ἡ ἀρετὴ σκεπτόμεθα, ἀλλ' ἔν' ἀγαθοὶ
 γενώμεθα, ἐπεὶ οὐδὲν ἂν ἦν ὄφελος αὐτῆς), ἀναγ-
 καῖον ἐπισκεῖσθαι τὰ περὶ τὰς πράξεις, πῶς ³⁰
 πρακτέον αὐτάς· αὗται γάρ εἰσι κύριαι καὶ τοῦ
 ποιᾶς γενέσθαι τὰς ἕξεις, καθάπερ εἰρήκαμεν.
- 2 Τὸ μὲν οὖν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον πράττειν
 κοινὸν καὶ ὑποκείσθω (ῥηθήσεται δ' ὕστερον περὶ
 αὐτοῦ, καὶ τί ἐστιν ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος καὶ πῶς ἔχει
 3 πρὸς τὰς ἄλλας ἀρετάς).¹ ἐκεῖνο δὲ προδι-
 ομολογείσθω, ὅτι πᾶς ὁ περὶ τῶν πρακτῶν λόγος ¹¹⁰⁴
 τύπῳ καὶ οὐκ ἀκριβῶς ὀφείλει λέγεσθαι, ὥσπερ
 καὶ κατ' ἀρχὰς εἶπομεν ὅτι κατὰ τὴν ὕλην οἱ

¹ ῥηθήσεται . . . ἀρετάς secludenda? Bywater.

^a i.e., in Bk. VI. For the sense in which 'the right principle' can be said to be the virtue of Prudence see vi. xiii. 5 note.

^b See i. iii. 1.

- become courageous or cowardly. And the same holds good of our dispositions with regard to the appetites, and anger; some men become temperate and gentle, other profligate and irascible, by actually comporting themselves in one way or the other in relation to those passions. In a word, our moral dispositions are formed as a result of the corresponding activities. Hence it is incumbent on us to control the character of our activities, since on the quality of these depends the quality of our dispositions. It is therefore not of small moment whether we are trained from childhood in one set of habits or another; on the contrary it is of very great, or rather of supreme, importance.
- ii As then our present study, unlike the other branches of philosophy, has a practical aim (for we are not investigating the nature of virtue for the sake of knowing what it is, but in order that we may become good, without which result our investigation would be of no use), we have consequently to carry our enquiry into the region of conduct, and to ask how we are to act rightly; since our actions, as we have said, determine the quality of our dispositions.
- 2 Now the formula 'to act in conformity with right principle' is common ground, and may be assumed as the basis of our discussion. (We shall speak about this formula later,^a and consider both the definition of right principle and its relation to the other virtues.)
- 3 But let it be granted to begin with that the whole theory of conduct is bound to be an outline only and not an exact system, in accordance with the rule we laid down at the beginning,^b that philosophical theories must only be required to correspond
- Right action conforms with Right Principle.
- Science of conduct necessarily inexact.

λόγοι ἀπαιτητέοι· τὰ δ' ἐν ταῖς πράξεσι καὶ τὰ
 συμφέροντα οὐδὲν ἐστηκεν ἔχει, ὥσπερ οὐδὲ τὰ ⁵
 4 ὑγιεινά· τοιούτου δ' ὄντος τοῦ καθόλου λόγου,
 ἔτι μᾶλλον ὁ περὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα λόγος οὐκ
 ἔχει τὰκριβές· οὔτε γὰρ ὑπὸ τέχνην οὔθ' ὑπὸ
 παραγγελίαν οὐδεμίαν πίπτει, δεῖ δ' αὐτοὺς αἰ
 τοὺς πράττοντας τὰ πρὸς τὸν καιρὸν σκοπεῖν,
 ὥσπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τῆς ἱατρικῆς ἔχει καὶ τῆς κυβερνη- ¹⁰
 5 τικῆς. ἀλλὰ καίπερ ὄντος τοιούτου τοῦ παρόντος
 λόγου πειρατέον βοηθεῖν.
 6 Πρῶτον οὖν τοῦτο θεωρητέον, ὅτι τὰ τοιαῦτα
 πέφυκεν ὑπὸ ἐνδείας καὶ ὑπερβολῆς φθείρεσθαι,
 (δεῖ γὰρ ὑπὲρ τῶν ἀφανῶν τοῖς φανεροῖς μαρ-
 τυρίοις χρῆσθαι) ὥσπερ ἐπὶ τῆς ἰσχύος καὶ τῆς
 ὑγιείας ὀρώμεν· τά τε γὰρ ὑπερβάλλοντα γυμνάσια ¹⁵
 καὶ τὰ ἐλλείποντα φθείρει τὴν ἰσχύν, ὁμοίως δὲ
 καὶ τὰ ποτὰ καὶ τὰ σιτία πλείω καὶ ἐλάττω
 γινόμενα φθείρει τὴν ὑγίειαν, τὰ δὲ σύμμετρα
 7 καὶ ποιεῖ καὶ αὔξει καὶ σώζει. οὕτως οὖν καὶ
 ἐπὶ σωφροσύνης καὶ ἀνδρείας ἔχει καὶ τῶν ἄλλων
 ἀρετῶν· ὃ τε γὰρ πάντα φεύγων καὶ φοβούμενος ²⁰
 καὶ μηδὲν ὑπομένων δειλὸς γίνεται, ὃ τε μηδὲν
 ὁλως φοβούμενος ἀλλὰ πρὸς πάντα βαδίζων
 θρασύς· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ὁ μὲν πάσης ἡδονῆς
 ἀπολαύων καὶ μηδεμιᾶς ἀπεχόμενος ἀκόλαστος,
 ὁ δὲ πᾶσαν ¹ φεύγων, ὥσπερ οἱ ἀγροῖκοι, ἀν-
 αίσθητός τις. φθείρεται δὴ ² ἡ σωφροσύνη καὶ ἡ ²⁵
 ἀνδρεία ὑπὸ τῆς ὑπερβολῆς καὶ τῆς ἐλλείψεως,
 ὑπὸ δὲ τῆς μεσότητος σώζεται.

¹ πᾶσαν K^b: πάσας.

² δὴ (vel ἄρα?) Susemihl: δὲ K^b, γὰρ vulg.

- to their subject matter; and matters of conduct and expediency have nothing fixed or invariable about them, any more than have matters of health.
- 4 And if this is true of the general theory of ethics, still less is exact precision possible in dealing with particular cases of conduct; for these come under no science or professional tradition, but the agents themselves have to consider what is suited to the circumstances on each occasion, just as is the case with the art of medicine or of navigation. But although the theory we are now investigating is thus necessarily inexact, we must do our best to help it out.
- 6 First of all then we have to observe, that moral qualities are so constituted as to be destroyed by excess and by deficiency—as we see is the case with bodily strength and health (for one is forced to explain what is invisible by means of visible illustrations). Strength is destroyed both by excessive and by deficient exercise; and similarly health is destroyed both by too much and by too little food and drink, while it is produced, increased, and preserved by a suitable quantity. The same therefore is true of Temperance, Courage, and the other virtues. The man who runs away from everything in fear and never endures anything becomes a coward; the man who fears nothing whatsoever but encounters everything becomes foolhardy. Similarly he that indulges in every pleasure and refrains from none turns out a profligate, and he that shuns all pleasure, as boorish persons do, becomes what may be called insensible. Thus Temperance and Courage are destroyed by excess and deficiency, and preserved by the observance of the mean.
- Virtue
impaired by
excess or
deficiency
in action.

- 8 Ἄλλ' οὐ μόνον αἱ γενέσεις καὶ¹ αὐξήσεις καὶ αἱ φθοραὶ ἐκ τῶν αὐτῶν καὶ ὑπὸ τῶν αὐτῶν γίνονται, ἀλλὰ καὶ αἱ ἐνέργειαι ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς ἔσονται· καὶ γὰρ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν φανερωτέρων³⁰ οὕτως ἔχει, οἷον ἐπὶ τῆς ἰσχύος· γίνεται γὰρ ἐκ τοῦ πολλὴν τροφὴν λαμβάνειν καὶ πολλοὺς πόνους ὑπομένειν, καὶ μάλιστα δύναται ταῦτα ποιεῖν ὁ³⁵ 9 ἰσχυρός. οὕτω δ' ἔχει καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν· ἔκ τε γὰρ τοῦ ἀπέχεσθαι τῶν ἡδονῶν γινόμεθα σώφρονες, καὶ γενόμενοι μάλιστα δυνάμεθα ἀ-³⁵ ἔχεσθαι αὐτῶν. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῆς ἀνδρείας·¹¹⁰⁴¹ 1 ἐπιζόμενοι γὰρ καταφρονεῖν τῶν φοβερῶν καὶ ὑπομένειν αὐτὰ γινόμεθα ἀνδρείοι, καὶ γενόμενοι μάλιστα δυνησόμεθα ὑπομένειν τὰ φοβερά.
- iii Σημεῖον δὲ δεῖ ποιεῖσθαι τῶν ἔξεων τὴν ἐπι-
γνομένην ἡδονὴν ἢ λύπην τοῖς ἔργοις· ὁ μὲν γὰρ⁵ ἀπεχόμενος τῶν σωματικῶν ἡδονῶν καὶ αὐτῷ τούτῳ χαίρων σώφρων, ὁ δ' ἀχθόμενος ἀκόλαστος, καὶ ὁ μὲν ὑπομένων τὰ δεινὰ [καὶ]² χαίρων ἢ μὴ λυπούμενός γε ἀνδρείος, ὁ δὲ λυπούμενος δειλός. περὶ ἡδονὰς γὰρ καὶ λύπας ἐστὶν ἡ ἡθικὴ ἀρετή. διὰ μὲν γὰρ τὴν ἡδονὴν τὰ φαῦλα¹⁰ πράττομεν, διὰ δὲ τὴν λύπην τῶν καλῶν ἀ-
2 ἐχόμεθα. διὸ δεῖ ἡχθαί πως εὐθὺς ἐκ νέων, ὡς ὁ Πλάτων φησὶν, ὥστε χαίρειν τε καὶ λυπεῖσθαι
3 οἷς δεῖ ἢ γὰρ ὀρθὴ παιδεία αὕτη ἐστίν.—ἔτι δ' εἰ αἰ³ ἀρεταὶ εἰσι περὶ πράξεις καὶ πάθη, παντὶ δὲ

¹ καὶ αἱ M^b.² Cobet.³ αἱ add. K^b.

^a We here resume from the end of c. i. The preceding paragraphs, repeating from Bk. I. the caution as to method, and introducing the doctrine of the Mean, which is to be developed below, are parenthetical.

8 But ^a not only are the virtues both generated and fostered on the one hand, and destroyed on the other, from and by the same actions, but they will also find their full exercise in the same actions. This is clearly the case with the other more visible qualities, such as bodily strength: for strength is produced by taking much food and undergoing much exertion, while also it is the strong man who will be able to eat most food and endure most exertion.

Virtue exercised in the actions by which it was formed.

9 The same holds good with the virtues. We become temperate by abstaining from pleasures, and at the same time we are best able to abstain from pleasures when we have become temperate. And so with Courage: we become brave by training ourselves to despise and endure terrors, and we shall be best able to endure terrors when we have become brave.

iii An index of our dispositions is afforded by the pleasure or pain that accompanies our actions. A man is temperate if he abstains from bodily pleasures and finds this abstinence itself enjoyable, profligate if he feels it irksome; he is brave if he faces danger with pleasure or at all events without pain, cowardly if he does so with pain.

Pleasure and pain the test of Virtue.

In fact pleasures and pains are the things with which moral virtue is concerned.

For (1) pleasure causes us to do base actions and pain causes us to abstain from doing noble actions.

2 Hence the importance, as Plato points out, of having been definitely trained from childhood to like and dislike the proper things; this is what good education means.

3 (2) Again, if the virtues have to do with actions and feelings, and every feeling and every action is

ARISTOTLE

πάθει καὶ πάσῃ πράξει ἔπεται ἡδονὴ καὶ λύπη, ¹⁵
καὶ διὰ τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη ἡ ἀρετὴ περὶ ἡδονὰς καὶ
⁴ λύπας.—μηνύουσι δὲ καὶ αἱ κολάσεις γινόμεναι
διὰ τούτων· ἰατρεῖαι γάρ τινές εἰσιν, αἱ δὲ ἰατρεῖαι
⁵ διὰ τῶν ἐναντίων πεφύκασιν γίνεσθαι.—ἔτι, ὥς
καὶ πρότερον εἵπομεν, πᾶσα ψυχῆς ἕξις, ὑφ' οἷων
πέφυκε γίνεσθαι χείρων καὶ βελτίων, πρὸς ταῦτα ²⁰
καὶ περὶ ταῦτα τὴν φύσιν ἔχει· δι' ἡδονὰς δὲ καὶ
λύπας φαῦλοι¹ γίνονται, τῷ διώκειν ταύτας καὶ
φεύγειν ἢ ἄς μὴ δεῖ ἢ ὅτε οὐ δεῖ ἢ ὥς οὐ δεῖ
ἢ ὅσαχῶς ἄλλως ὑπὸ τοῦ λόγου διορίζεται τὰ
τοιαῦτα. διὸ καὶ ὀρίζονται τὰς ἀρετὰς ἀπαθείας
τινὰς καὶ ἡρεμίας· οὐκ εἰ δέ, ὅτι ἀπλῶς λέγουσιν, ²⁵
ἀλλ' οὐχ ὥς δεῖ καὶ ὥς οὐ δεῖ, καὶ ὅτε, καὶ ὅσα
⁶ ἄλλα προστίθεται. ὑπόκειται ἄρα ἡ ἀρετὴ εἶναι
ἢ τοιαύτη περὶ ἡδονὰς καὶ λύπας τῶν βελτίστων
⁷ πρακτικῇ, ἢ δὲ κακίᾳ τοῦναντίον. γένοιτο δ'
ἂν ἡμῖν καὶ ἐκ τούτων φανερόν ἔτι² περὶ τῶν
αὐτῶν. τριῶν γὰρ ὄντων τῶν εἰς τὰς αἰρέσεις ⁸⁰
καὶ τριῶν τῶν εἰς τὰς φυγὰς, καλοῦ συμφέροντος
ἡδέος, καὶ [τριῶν]³ τῶν ἐναντίων, αἰσχροῦ βλα-
βεροῦ λυπηροῦ, περὶ πάντα μὲν ταῦτα ὁ ἀγαθὸς
κατορθωτικός ἐστὼν ὁ δὲ κακὸς ἀμαρτητικός,

¹ φαῦλαι Ob.² ὅτι Kb.³ Coraes.

^a The contrary maxim to *similia similibus curantur* or homoeopathy. Fever, caused by heat, is cured by cold. Hence if the remedy for wickedness is pain, it must have been caused by pleasure.

^b i.e., is actively exercised when fully developed, cf. c. ii. 8.

^c The reference is probably to Speusippus, although in the extant remains of Greek philosophy *apathy*, or freedom

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. iii. 3-7

attended with pleasure or pain, this too shows that virtue has to do with pleasure and pain.

4 (3) Another indication is the fact that pain is the medium of punishment; for punishment is a sort of medicine, and it is the nature of medicine to work by means of opposites.^a

5 (4) Again, as we said before, every formed disposition of the soul realizes its full nature ^b in relation to and in dealing with that class of objects by which it is its nature to be corrupted or improved. But men are corrupted through pleasures and pains, that is, either by pursuing and avoiding the wrong pleasures and pains, or by pursuing and avoiding them at the wrong time, or in the wrong manner, or in one of the other wrong ways under which errors of conduct can be logically classified. This is why some thinkers^c define the virtues as states of impassivity or tranquillity, though they make a mistake in using these terms absolutely, without adding 'in the right (or wrong) manner' and 'at the right (or wrong) time' and the other qualifications.

6 Therefore it is established that moral virtue is the quality of acting in the best way in relation to pleasures and pains, and that vice is the opposite.

7 But the following considerations also will give us further light on the same point.

(5) There are three things that are the motives of choice and three that are the motives of avoidance; namely, the noble, the expedient, and the pleasant, and their opposites, the base, the harmful, and the painful. Now in respect of all these the good man is likely to go right and the bad to go wrong, but

from passions or emotions, first appears as an ethical ideal of the Stoics.

- μάλιστα δὲ περὶ τὴν ἡδονήν· κοινή τε γὰρ
 αὕτη τοῖς ζώοις, καὶ πᾶσι τοῖς ὑπὸ τὴν αἵρεσιν ³⁵
 παρακολουθεῖ, καὶ γὰρ τὸ καλὸν καὶ τὸ συμφέρον ¹¹⁰⁵
 8 ἡδὺ φαίνεται.—ἔτι δ' ἐκ νηπίου πᾶσιν ἡμῖν συν-
 τέθραπται· διὸ χαλεπὸν ἀποτρίψασθαι τοῦτο τὸ
 πάθος ἐγκεχρωσμένον τῷ βίῳ.—κανονίζομεν ἔδῃ
 καὶ τὰς πράξεις, οἱ μὲν μᾶλλον οἱ δ' ἥττον,
 9 ἡδονῇ καὶ λύπῃ. διὰ τοῦτ' οὖν ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι ⁵
 περὶ ταῦτα τὴν πᾶσαν πραγματείαν· οὐ γὰρ
 μικρὸν εἰς τὰς πράξεις εὖ ἢ κακῶς χαίρειν καὶ
 10 λυπεῖσθαι.—ἔτι δὲ χαλεπώτερον ἡδονῇ μάχεσθαι
 ἢ θυμῷ, καθάπερ φησὶν Ἡράκλειτος, περὶ δὲ τὸ
 χαλεπώτερον αἰεὶ καὶ τέχνη γίνεται καὶ ἀρετῇ·
 καὶ γὰρ τὸ εὖ βέλτιον ἐν τούτῳ. ὥστε καὶ διὰ ¹⁰
 τοῦτο περὶ ἡδονὰς καὶ λύπας πᾶσα ἡ πραγματεία
 καὶ τῇ ἀρετῇ καὶ τῇ πολιτικῇ· ὁ μὲν γὰρ εὖ
 τούτοις χρώμενος ἀγαθὸς ἔσται, ὁ δὲ κακῶς
 11 κακός. ὅτι μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ἡ ἀρετὴ περὶ ἡδονὰς
 καὶ λύπας, καὶ ὅτι ἐξ ὧν γίνεται, ὑπὸ τούτων
 καὶ αὖξεται καὶ φθείρεται μὴ ὡσαύτως γινομένων, ¹⁵
 καὶ ὅτι ἐξ ὧν ἐγένετο, περὶ ταῦτα καὶ ἐνεργεῖ,
 εἰρήσθω.
 iv Ἀπορήσειε τδ' ἂν τις πῶς λέγομεν ὅτι δεῖ τὰ
 μὲν δίκαια πράττοντας δικαίους γίνεσθαι τὰ δὲ
 σώφρονα σώφρονας· εἰ γὰρ πράττουσι τὰ δίκαια

^a Sc., as well as being the sources of our feelings.

^b Heraclitus, Fr. cv (Bywater) θυμῷ μάχεσθαι χαλεπόν· ὅ
 τι γὰρ ἂν χρηρίζη γίνεσθαι, ψυχῆς ὠρέεται, 'it is hard to fight
 with anger [or 'desire,' θυμῷ in the Homeric sense,
 Burnet]. Whatever it wishes to get, it purchases at the
 cost of soul.'

· especially in respect of pleasure; for pleasure is common to man with the lower animals, and also it is a concomitant of all the objects of choice, since both the noble and the expedient appear to us pleasant.

8 (6) Again, the susceptibility to pleasure has grown up with all of us from the cradle. Hence this feeling is hard to eradicate, being engrained in the fabric of our lives.

(7) Again, pleasure and pain are also ^a the standards by which we all, in a greater or less degree, regulate our actions. On this account therefore pleasure and pain are necessarily our main concern, since to feel pleasure and pain rightly or wrongly has a great effect on conduct.

10 (8) And again, it is harder to fight against pleasure than against anger (hard as that is, as Heracleitus^b says); but virtue, like art, is constantly dealing with what is harder, since the harder the task the better is success. For this reason also therefore pleasure and pain are necessarily the main concern both of virtue and of political science, since he who comports himself towards them rightly will be good, and he who does so wrongly, bad.

11 We may then take it as established that virtue has to do with pleasures and pains, that the actions which produce it are those which increase it, and also, if differently performed, destroy it, and that the actions from which it was produced are also those in which it is exercised.

iv A difficulty may however be raised as to what we mean by saying that in order to become just men must do just actions, and in order to become temperate they must do temperate actions. For

Virtue, how
formed by
acting
virtuously.

ARISTOTLE

καὶ τὰ σώφρονα, ἥδη εἰσὶ δίκαιοι καὶ σώφρονες, 20
 ὥσπερ εἰ τὰ γραμματικὰ καὶ τὰ μουσικά, γραμ-
 2 ματικοὶ καὶ μουσικοί. ἢ οὐδ' ἐπὶ τῶν τεχνῶν
 οὕτως ἔχει; ἐνδέχεται γὰρ γραμματικόν τι ποιῆσαι
 καὶ ἀπὸ τύχης καὶ ἄλλου ὑποθεμένου· τότε οὖν
 ἔσται γραμματικός, ἐὰν καὶ γραμματικόν τι ποιήσῃ
 καὶ γραμματικῶς, τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶ [τὸ]¹ κατὰ τὴν 25
 3 ἐν αὐτῷ γραμματικὴν. ἔτι οὐδ' ὁμοίον ἐστὶν ἐπὶ
 τῶν τεχνῶν καὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν· τὰ μὲν γὰρ ὑπὸ τῶν
 τεχνῶν γινόμενα τὸ εὖ ἔχει ἐν αὐτοῖς, ἀρκεῖ οὖν
 αὐτά² πως ἔχοντα γενέσθαι· τὰ δὲ κατὰ τὰς ἀρετὰς
 γινόμενα οὐκ ἐὰν αὐτά πως ἔχῃ, δικαίως ἢ 30
 σωφρόνως πράττεται, ἀλλὰ καὶ ἐὰν ὁ πράττων
 πως ἔχων πράττῃ, πρῶτον μὲν ἐὰν εἰδῶς, ἔπειτ'
 ἐὰν προαιρούμενος, καὶ προαιρούμενος δι' αὐτά,
 τὸ δὲ τρίτον καὶ ἐὰν βεβαίως καὶ ἀμετακινήτως
 ἔχων πράττῃ. ταῦτα δὲ πρὸς μὲν τὸ τὰς ἄλλας 1105 b
 τέχνας ἔχειν οὐ συναριθμεῖται, πλὴν αὐτὸ τὸ
 εἰδέναι· πρὸς δὲ τὸ τὰς ἀρετὰς τὸ μὲν εἰδέναι
 μικρὸν ἢ οὐδὲν ἰσχύει, τὰ δ' ἄλλα οὐ μικρὸν ἀλλὰ
 τὸ πᾶν δύναται, εἴπερ³ ἐκ τοῦ πολλάκις πράττειν
 4 τὰ δίκαια καὶ σώφρονα περιγίνεται. τὰ μὲν οὖν 5
 πράγματα δίκαια καὶ σώφρονα λέγεται, ὅταν ἢ
 τοιαῦτα οἶα ᾖ ὁ δίκαιος ἢ ὁ σώφρων πράξαιεν·
 δίκαιος δὲ καὶ σώφρων ἐστὶν οὐχ ὁ ταῦτα πράττων,

¹ Richards. ² αὐτά L^b: ταῦτά vulg.: ταῦτ' αὐτά: ed.

³ εἴπερ conj. Bywater: ἄπερ.

^a See Bk. III. i., where this is interpreted as meaning both knowledge of what he is doing (the act must not be

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. iv. 1-4

if they do just and temperate actions, they are just and temperate already, just as, if they spell or play music correctly, they are scholars or musicians.

2 But perhaps this is not the case even with the arts. It is possible to spell a word correctly by chance, or because some one else prompts you; hence you will be a scholar only if you spell correctly in the scholar's way, that is, in virtue of the scholarly knowledge which you yourself possess.

3 Moreover the case of the arts is not really analogous to that of the virtues. Works of art have their merit in themselves, so that it is enough if they are produced having a certain quality of their own; but acts done in conformity with the virtues are not done justly or temperately if they themselves are of a certain sort, but only if the agent also is in a certain state of mind when he does them: first he must act with knowledge^a; secondly he must deliberately choose the act, and choose it for its own sake; and thirdly the act must spring from a fixed and permanent disposition of character. For the possession of an art, none of these conditions is included, except the mere qualification of knowledge; but for the possession of the virtues, knowledge is of little or no avail, whereas the other conditions, so far from being of little moment, are all-important, inasmuch as virtue results from the repeated performance of just and temperate actions.

4 Thus although actions are entitled just and temperate when they are such acts as just and temperate men would do, the agent is just and temperate not when he does these acts merely, but when he does them

unconscious or accidental), and knowledge of moral principle (he must know that the act is a right one).

ARISTOTLE

ἀλλὰ καὶ [ό]¹ οὕτω πράττων ὡς οἱ δίκαιοι καὶ οἱ
 5 σώφρονες πράττουσιν. εὖ οὖν λέγεται ὅτι ἐκ τοῦ
 τὰ δίκαια πράττειν ὁ δίκαιος γίνεταί καὶ ἐκ τοῦ τὰ 10
 σώφρονα ὁ σώφρων· ἐκ δὲ τοῦ μὴ πράττειν ταῦτα
 6 οὐδεὶς ἂν οὐδὲ μελλήσειε γίνεσθαι² ἀγαθός. ἀλλ’
 οἱ πολλοὶ ταῦτα μὲν οὐ πράττουσιν, ἐπὶ δὲ τὸν
 λόγον καταφεύγοντες οἴονται φιλοσοφεῖν καὶ οὕτως
 ἔσεσθαι σπουδαῖοι, ὅμοιόν τι ποιοῦντες τοῖς κάμ- 15
 νουσιν, οἱ τῶν ἱατρῶν ἀκούουσι μὲν ἐπιμελῶς,
 ποιοῦσι δ’ οὐθὲν τῶν προσταττομένων. ὥσπερ οὖν
 οὐδ’ ἐκεῖνοι εὖ ἔξουσιν τὸ σῶμα οὕτω θεραπευό-
 μενοι, οὐδ’ οὗτοι τὴν ψυχὴν οὕτω φιλοσοφούντες.
 v Μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα τί ἐστὶν ἡ ἀρετὴ σκεπτέον. ἐπεὶ
 οὖν τὰ ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ γινόμενα τρία ἐστί, πάθη 20
 2 δυνάμεις ἔξεις, τούτων ἂν τι εἴη ἡ ἀρετή. λέγω
 δὲ πάθη μὲν ἐπιθυμίαν ὀργὴν φόβον θράσος φθόνον
 χαρὰν φιλίαν μῖσος πόθον ζῆλον ἔλεον, ὅλως οἷς
 ἔπεται ἡδονὴ ἢ λύπη· δυνάμεις δὲ καθ’ ἃς παθητικοὶ
 τούτων λεγόμεθα, οἷον καθ’ ἃς δυνατοὶ ὀργισθῆναι 25
 ἢ λυπηθῆναι³ ἢ ἐλεῆσαι· ἔξεις δὲ καθ’ ἃς πρὸς τὰ
 πάθη ἔχομεν οὕτῃ ἢ κακῶς, οἷον πρὸς τὸ ὀργισθῆναι,
 εἰ μὲν σφοδρῶς ἢ ἀνειμένως, κακῶς ἔχομεν, εἰ δὲ
 3 μέσως, εὖ, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ πρὸς τὰλλα. πάθη μὲν
 οὖν οὐκ εἰσὶν οὕθ’ αἱ ἀρεταὶ οὕθ’ αἱ κακίαι, ὅτι οὐ

¹ καὶ [ό] Bywater: ὁ καὶ ? ed.

² γίνεσθαι Bywater: γενέσθαι.

³ λυπηθῆναι: φοβηθῆναι ? Rassow.

^a Probably for ‘pain’ we should read ‘fear.’

in the way in which just and temperate men do
 5 them. It is correct therefore to say that a man
 becomes just by doing just actions and temperate
 by doing temperate actions ; and no one can have
 the remotest chance of becoming good without
 6 doing them. But the mass of mankind, instead of
 doing virtuous acts, have recourse to discussing
 virtue, and think that they are pursuing philosophy
 and that this will make them good men. In so
 doing they act like invalids who listen carefully to
 what the doctor says, but entirely neglect to carry
 out his prescriptions. That sort of philosophy will
 no more lead to a healthy state of soul than will
 that mode of treatment produce health of body.

v We have next to consider the formal definition
 of virtue.

Moral
 Virtue
 defined :
 (a) generic-
 ally it is
 a Habit or
 fixed dis-
 position.

A state of the soul is either (1) a feeling, (2) a
 capacity, or (3) a disposition ; virtue therefore must
 2 be one of these three things. By the feelings, I
 mean desire, anger, fear, confidence, envy, joy, friend-
 ship, hatred, longing, jealousy, pity ; and generally
 those states of consciousness which are accompanied
 by pleasure or pain. The capacities are the faculties
 in virtue of which we can be said to be liable to the
 feelings, for example, capable of feeling anger or
 pain^a or pity. The dispositions ~~are~~ the formed
 states of character in virtue of which we are well or
 ill disposed in respect of the feelings ; for instance,
 we have a bad disposition in regard to anger if we
 are disposed to get angry too violently or not
 violently enough, a good disposition if we habitually
 feel a moderate amount of anger ; and similarly in
 respect of the other feelings.

3 Now the virtues and vices are not feelings,

λεγόμεθα κατὰ τὰ πάθη σπουδαῖοι ἢ φαῦλοι, κατὰ ³⁰
 δὲ τὰς ἀρετὰς καὶ τὰς κακίας λεγόμεθα, καὶ ὅτι
 κατὰ μὲν τὰ πάθη οὐτ' ἐπαινούμεθα οὔτε ψεγόμεθα
 (οὐ γὰρ ἐπαινεῖται ὁ φοβούμενος οὐδὲ ὁ ὀργιζό-
 μενος, οὐδὲ ψέγεται ὁ ἀπλῶς ὀργιζόμενος ἀλλ' ὁ ^{1106 a}
 πῶς), κατὰ δὲ τὰς ἀρετὰς καὶ τὰς κακίας ἐπαινοῦ-
 4 μεθα ἢ ψεγόμεθα. ἔτι ὀργιζόμεθα μὲν καὶ φοβού-
 μεθα ἀπροαιρέτως, αἱ δ' ἀρεταὶ προαιρέσεις τινὲς
 ἢ οὐκ ἄνευ προαιρέσεως. πρὸς δὲ τούτοις κατὰ
 μὲν τὰ πάθη κινεῖσθαι λεγόμεθα, κατὰ δὲ τὰς ⁵
 ἀρετὰς καὶ τὰς κακίας οὐ κινεῖσθαι ἀλλὰ διακεῖσθαι
 5 πῶς. διὰ ταυτὰ¹ δὲ οὐδὲ δυνάμεις εἰσὶν· οὔτε
 γὰρ ἀγαθοὶ λεγόμεθα τῷ δύνασθαι πάσχειν ἀπλῶς
 οὔτε κακοί,² οὐτ' ἐπαινούμεθα οὔτε ψεγόμεθα· ἔτι
 δυνατοὶ μὲν ἐσμεν φύσει, ἀγαθοὶ δὲ ἢ κακοὶ οὐ ¹⁰
 γινόμεθα φύσει· εἴπομεν δὲ περὶ τούτου πρότερον.
 6 εἰ οὖν μήτε πάθη εἰσὶν αἱ ἀρεταὶ μήτε δυνάμεις,
 λείπεται ἕξεις αὐτὰς εἶναι. ὅ τι μὲν οὖν ἐστὶ τῷ
 γένει ἢ ἀρετῇ, εἴρηται.

vi Δεῖ δὲ μὴ μόνον οὕτως εἰπεῖν ὅτι ἕξεις, ἀλλὰ καὶ
 2 ποία τις. ῥητέον οὖν ὅτι πᾶσα ἀρετῇ, οὐ ἂν ἢ ¹⁵
 ἀρετῇ, αὐτό τε εὖ ἔχον ἀποτελεῖ καὶ τὸ ἔργον
 αὐτοῦ εὖ ἀποδίδωσιν· οἷον ἢ τοῦ ὀφθαλμοῦ ἀρετῇ
 τότ' τε ὀφθαλμὸν σπουδαῖον ποιεῖ καὶ τὸ ἔργον
 αὐτοῦ (τῇ γὰρ τοῦ ὀφθαλμοῦ ἀρετῇ εὖ ὀρώμεν)·
 ὁμοίως δὲ³ ἢ τοῦ ἵππου ἀρετῇ ἵππον τε σπουδαῖον ²⁰
 ποιεῖ καὶ ἀγαθὸν δραμεῖν καὶ ἐνεγκεῖν τὸν ἐπι-

¹ ταυτὰ Richards: ταῦτα.

² κακοὶ <καὶ> vel <οὐδὲ> Richards: [οὔτε . . . ψεγόμεθα] ?
 Bywater.

³ δὲ add. N^b.

because we are not pronounced good or bad according to our feelings, but we are according to our virtues and vices; nor are we either praised or blamed for our feelings—a man is not praised for being frightened or angry, nor is he blamed for being angry merely, but for being angry in a certain way—but we are praised or blamed for our virtues
4 and vices. Again, we are not angry or afraid from choice, but the virtues are certain modes of choice, or at all events involve choice. Moreover, we are said to be ‘moved’ by the feelings, whereas in respect of the virtues and vices we are not said to be ‘moved’ but to be ‘disposed’ in a certain way.

5 And the same considerations also prove that the virtues and vices are not capacities; since we are not pronounced good or bad, praised or blamed, merely by reason of our capacity for feelings. Again, we possess certain capacities by nature, but we are not born good or bad by nature: of this however we spoke before.

6 If then the virtues are neither feelings nor capacities, it remains that they are dispositions.

Thus we have stated what virtue is generically.

vi But it is not enough merely to define virtue generically as a disposition; we must also say what
2 species of disposition it is. It must then be premised that all excellence has a twofold effect on the thing to which it belongs: it not only renders the thing itself good, but it also causes it to perform its function well. For example, the effect of excellence in the eye is that the eye is good *and* functions well; since having good eyes means having good sight. Similarly excellence in a horse makes it a good horse, and also good at galloping, at carrying its rider,

(b) Specifically, Moral Virtue is a Habit of choosing the relative mean in actions and feelings

ARISTOTLE

3 βάτην καὶ μείναι τοὺς πολεμίους. εἰ δὴ τοῦτ' ἐπὶ πάντων οὕτως ἔχει, καὶ ἡ τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ἀρετὴ εἴη ἂν ἡ¹ ἕξις ἀφ' ἧς ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος γίνεται καὶ ἀφ' 4 ἧς εὖ τὸ ἑαυτοῦ ἔργον ἀποδώσει. πῶς δὲ τοῦτ' ἔσται, ἥδη μὲν εἰρήκαμεν, ἔτι δὲ καὶ ὧδ' ἔσται² 35 φανερόν, εἰάν θεωρήσωμεν ποία τίς ἐστὶν ἡ φύσις αὐτῆς. ἐν παντὶ δὴ συνεχεῖ καὶ διαιρετῶ· ἔστι λαβεῖν τὸ μὲν πλείον τὸ δ' ἑλάττω τὸ δ' ἴσον, καὶ ταῦτα ἢ κατ' αὐτὸ τὸ πρᾶγμα ἢ πρὸς ἡμᾶς· τὸ δ' 5 ἴσον μέσον τι ὑπερβολῆς καὶ ἐλλείψεως. λέγω δὲ τοῦ μὲν πράγματος μέσον τὸ ἴσον ἀπέχον ἀφ' 30 ἑκατέρου τῶν ἄκρων, ὅπερ ἐστὶν ἐν καὶ ταὐτὸν πᾶσιν, πρὸς ἡμᾶς δὲ ὃ μῆτε πλεονάζει μῆτε 6 ἐλλείπει· τοῦτο δ' οὐχ ἓν, οὐδὲ ταὐτὸν πᾶσιν. οἷον εἰ τὰ δέκα πολλὰ τὰ δὲ δύο ὀλίγα, τὰ ἕξ μέσα λαμβάνουσι κατὰ τὸ πρᾶγμα· ἴσῳ γὰρ ὑπερέχει τε 7 καὶ ὑπερέχεται, τοῦτο δὲ μέσον ἐστὶ κατὰ τὴν³ 35 ἀριθμητικὴν ἀναλογίαν. τὸ δὲ πρὸς ἡμᾶς οὐχ οὕτω ληπτέον· οὐ γὰρ εἴ τῳ δέκα μναῖ φαγεῖν πολὺ 1106 a δύο δὲ ὀλίγον, ὃ ἀλείπτῃς ἕξ μναῖς προστάξει· ἔστι²

¹ ἡ add. K^b.² fort. ἔσται Hel. (Richards).^a c. ii. 8 f.^b i.e., without distinct parts, and so (if divisible at all), divisible at any point, as opposed to what is διωρισμένον, 'discrete,' or made up of distinct parts and only divisible between them.^c Greek comparatives, 'larger,' 'smaller,' etc., may also mean 'too large,' 'too small,' etc.; and there is the same ambiguity in the words translated 'excess' and 'deficiency.' Again μέσον, 'middle' or 'mean,' is used as a synonym for μέτριον 'moderate' or of the right amount, and ἴσον 'equal' can mean 'equitable.' Hence 'to take an equal part with respect to the thing itself' means to take a part equal to the part left, viz. a half;

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. vi. 3-7

3 and at facing the enemy. If therefore this is true
of all things, excellence or virtue in a man will be
the disposition which renders him a good man and
also which will cause him to perform his function
4 well. We have already indicated ^a what this means ;
but it will throw more light on the subject if we
consider what constitutes the specific nature of
virtue.

Now of everything that is continuous ^b and divisible,
it is possible to take the larger part, or the smaller
part, or an equal part, and these parts may be larger,
smaller, and equal either with respect to the thing
itself or relatively to us ; the equal part being a
5 mean between excess and deficiency.^c By the
mean of the thing I denote a point equally distant
from either extreme, which is one and the same
for everybody ; by the mean relative to us, that
amount which is neither too much nor too little,
and this is not one and the same for everybody.
6 For example, let 10 be many and 2 few ; then one
takes the mean with respect to the thing if one
7 takes 6, since $6 - 2 = 10 - 6$; this is the mean given
by arithmetical proportion.^d But we cannot arrive
by this method at the mean relative to us. Suppose
that 10 lb. of food is a large ration for anybody
and 2 lb. a small one : it does not follow that a

' to take an equal part relatively to us,' means to take what
is a fair or suitable amount. The former is a mean as being
exactly in the middle between all and none—if the thing
in question is represented by a line, this is bisected at a
point equidistant from its two ends ; the latter is a mean
in the sense of being the right amount for the recipient, and
also of lying somewhere between any two other amounts
that happen to be too much and too little for him.

^d We should rather call this an arithmetical progression.

- γὰρ ἴσως καὶ τοῦτο πολὺ τῷ ληψομένῳ ἢ ὀλίγον·
 Μίλωνι μὲν γὰρ ὀλίγον, τῷ δὲ ἀρχομένῳ τῶν γυμ-
 νασίων πολὺ· ὁμοίως <δ'>¹ ἐπὶ δρόμου καὶ πάλης. 5
 8 οὕτω δὴ πᾶς ἐπιστήμων τὴν ὑπερβολὴν μὲν καὶ
 τὴν ἔλλειψιν φεύγει, τὸ δὲ μέσον ζητεῖ καὶ τοῦθ'
 αἰρεῖται, μέσον δὲ οὐ τὸ τοῦ πράγματος ἀλλὰ τὸ
 9 πρὸς ἡμᾶς. εἰ δὴ πᾶσα ἐπιστήμη οὕτω τὸ ἔργον
 εὖ ἐπιτελεῖ, πρὸς τὸ μέσον βλέπουσα καὶ εἰς τοῦτο
 ἄγουσα τὰ ἔργα (ὅθεν εἰώθασιν ἐπιλέγειν τοῖς εὖ 10
 ἔχουσιν ἔργοις ὅτι οὗτ' ἀφελεῖν ἔστιν οὔτε προσ-
 θεῖναι, ὡς τῆς μὲν ὑπερβολῆς καὶ τῆς ἐλλείψεως
 φθειρούσης τὸ εὖ, τῆς δὲ μεσότητος σωζούσης)—
 εἰ δὴ οἱ² ἀγαθοὶ τεχνῦται, ὡς λέγομεν, πρὸς τοῦτο
 βλέποντες ἐργάζονται, ἢ δ' ἀρετὴ πάσης τέχνης
 ἀκριβεστέρα καὶ ἀμείνων ἐστίν, ὥσπερ καὶ ἡ 15
 10 φύσις, τοῦ μέσου ἂν εἴη στοχαστική. λέγω δὲ
 τὴν ἠθικὴν· αὕτη γάρ ἐστι περὶ πάθη καὶ πράξεις,
 ἐν δὲ τούτοις ἐστὶν ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις καὶ τὸ
 μέσον. οἷον καὶ φοβηθῆναι καὶ θαρρῆσαι καὶ ἐπι-
 θυμῆσαι καὶ ὀργισθῆναι καὶ ἐλεῆσαι καὶ ὅλως
 ἡσθῆναι καὶ λυπηθῆναι ἔστι καὶ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον, 20
 11 καὶ ἀμφότερα οὐκ εὖ· τὸ δ' ὅτε δεῖ καὶ ἐφ' οἷς καὶ
 πρὸς οὓς καὶ οὐ ἔνεκα καὶ ὡς δεῖ, μέσον τε καὶ
 12 ἄριστον, ὅπερ ἐστὶ τῆς ἀρετῆς. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ
 περὶ τὰς πράξεις ἐστὶν ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις καὶ
 τὸ μέσον. ἢ δ' ἀρετὴ περὶ πάθη καὶ πράξεις ἐστίν,

¹ ed.² εἰ δὴ οἱ Susemihl: εἰ δ' οἱ K^b, οἱ δ' vulg.^a The formula of the mean does not apply to the intellectual virtues.

trainer will prescribe 6 lb., for perhaps even this will be a large ration, or a small one, for the particular athlete who is to receive it; it is a small ration for a Milo, but a large one for a man just beginning to go in for athletics. And similarly with the amount
8 of running or wrestling exercise to be taken. In the same way then an expert in any art avoids excess and deficiency, and seeks and adopts the mean—the mean, that is, not of the thing but
9 relative to us. If therefore the way in which every art or science performs its work well is by looking to the mean and applying that as a standard to its productions (hence the common remark about a perfect work of art, that you could not take from it nor add to it—meaning that excess and deficiency destroy perfection, while adherence to the mean preserves it)—if then, as we say, good craftsmen look to the mean as they work, and if virtue, like nature, is more accurate and better than any form of art, it will follow that virtue aims at hitting the
10 mean. I refer to moral virtue,^a for this is concerned with feelings and actions, in which one can have excess or deficiency or a due mean. For example, one can be frightened or bold, feel desire or anger or pity, and experience pleasure and pain in general, either too much or too little, and in both cases
11 wrongly; whereas to feel these feelings at the right time, on the right occasion, towards the right people, for the right purpose and in the right manner, is to feel the best amount of them, which is the mean amount—and the best amount is of course the
12 mark of virtue. And similarly there can be excess, deficiency, and the due mean in actions. Now feelings and actions are the objects with which

ἐν οἷς ἡ μὲν ὑπερβολὴ¹ ἀμαρτάνεται καὶ ἡ ἔλλειψις 25
 [ψέγεται,]² τὸ δὲ μέσον ἐπαινεῖται καὶ κατορθοῦ-
 13 ται· ταῦτα δ' ἄμφω τῆς ἀρετῆς. μεσότης τις ἄρα
 ἐστὶν ἡ ἀρετὴ στοχαστικὴ γε³ οὕσα τοῦ μέσου.
 14 ἔτι τὸ μὲν ἀμαρτάνειν πολλαχῶς ἐστὶν (τὸ γὰρ
 κακὸν τοῦ ἀπείρου, ὡς οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι εἵκαζον, τὸ 30
 δ' ἀγαθὸν τοῦ πεπερασμένου), τὸ δὲ κατορθοῦν
 μοναχῶς (διὸ καὶ τὸ μὲν ῥᾶδιον τὸ δὲ χαλεπὸν,
 ῥᾶδιον μὲν τὸ ἀποτυχεῖν τοῦ σκοποῦ, χαλεπὸν δὲ
 τὸ ἐπιτυχεῖν)· καὶ διὰ ταῦτ' οὖν τῆς μὲν κακίας ἡ
 ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἡ ἔλλειψις, τῆς δ' ἀρετῆς ἡ μεσότης·

ἐσθλοὶ μὲν γὰρ ἀπλῶς, παντοδαπῶς δὲ κακοί. 35

15 Ἔστιν ἄρα ἡ ἀρετὴ ἕξις προαιρετικὴ, ἐν μεσότητι
 οὕσα τῇ πρὸς ἡμᾶς, ὠρισμένη⁴ λόγῳ καὶ ὡς⁵ ἂν ὁ 1107
 φρόνιμος ὀρίσειεν. μεσότης δὲ δύο κακιῶν, τῆς
 16 μὲν καθ' ὑπερβολὴν τῆς δὲ κατ' ἔλλειψιν· καὶ ἔτι⁶
 τῷ τὰς μὲν ἐλλείπειν τὰς δ' ὑπερβάλλειν τοῦ
 δέοντος ἔν τε τοῖς πάθεσι καὶ ἐν ταῖς πράξεσι, τὴν 5
 δ' ἀρετὴν τὸ μέσον καὶ εὕρισκειν καὶ αἰρεῖσθαι.
 17 διὸ κατὰ μὲν τὴν οὐσίαν καὶ τὸν λόγον τὸν τί ἦν
 εἶναι λέγοντα μεσότης ἐστὶν ἡ ἀρετὴ, κατὰ δὲ τὸ
 ἄριστον καὶ τὸ εὖ ἀκρότης.

¹ ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἡ ἔλλειψις ἀμαρτάνεται (καὶ) ψέγεται Rassow.

² Bywater.

³ γε om. K^b.

⁴ ὠρισμένη Γ: ὠρισμένη.

⁵ ᾧ Asp.

⁶ lacunam vel aliam mendam suspexit Richards.

^a Cf. I. vi. 7.

^b This verse from an unknown source would come in better just before or just after the last parenthesis.

^c Προαίρεσις, 'choice' or 'purpose,' is discussed in III. II., where see note.

virtue is concerned; and in feelings and actions excess and deficiency are errors, while the mean amount is praised, and constitutes success; and to be praised and to be successful are both marks of
 13 virtue. Virtue, therefore, is a mean state in the
 14 sense that it aims at hitting the mean. Again, error is multiform (for evil is a form of the unlimited, as in the old Pythagorean imagery,^a and good of the limited), whereas success is possible in one way only (which is why it is easy to fail and difficult to succeed—easy to miss the target and difficult to hit it); so this is another reason why excess and deficiency are a mark of vice, and observance of the mean a mark of virtue:

Goodness is simple, badness manifold.^b

- 15 Virtue then is a settled disposition of the mind as regards the choice^c of actions and feelings, consisting essentially in the observance of the mean relative to us, this being determined by principle, that is,^d as the prudent man would determine it.
- 16 And it is a mean state between two vices, one of excess and one of defect. Furthermore, it is a mean state in that whereas the vices either fall short of or exceed what is right in feelings and in actions,
 17 virtue ascertains and adopts the mean. Hence while in respect of its essence and the definition that states its original being virtue is the observance of the mean, in point of excellence and rightness it is an extreme.^e

^a A variant reading gives 'determined by principle, or whatever we like to call that by which the prudent man would determine it.'

^e Cf. III. iv.¹⁸.

- 18 Οὐ πᾶσα δ' ἐπιδέχεται πράξις οὐδὲ πᾶν πάθος
τὴν μεσότητα· ἓνια γὰρ εὐθύς ὠνόμασται συνειλημ- 10
μένα μετὰ τῆς φαυλότητος, οἷον ἐπιχαιρεκακία
ἀναισχυντία φθόνος, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν πράξεων μοιχεία
κλοπή ἀνδροφονία· πάντα γὰρ ταῦτα καὶ τὰ
τοιαῦτα ψέγεται τῷ αὐτὰ φαῦλα εἶναι, ἀλλ' οὐχ
αἱ ὑπερβολαὶ αὐτῶν οὐδ' αἱ ἐλλείψεις. οὐκ ἔστιν
οὖν οὐδέποτε περὶ αὐτὰ κατορθοῦν, ἀλλ' αἰεὶ 15
ἀμαρτάνειν· οὐδ' ἔστι τὸ εὖ ἢ μὴ εὖ περὶ τὰ
τοιαῦτα ἐν τῷ ἦν δεῖ καὶ ὅτε καὶ ὡς μοιχεύειν,
ἀλλ' ἀπλῶς τὸ ποιεῖν ὁτιοῦν τούτων ἀμαρτάνειν
19 ἔστιν. ὅμοιον οὖν τὸ ἀξιοῦν¹ καὶ περὶ τὸ ἀδικεῖν
καὶ δειλαίνειν καὶ ἀκολασταίνειν εἶναι μεσότητα
καὶ ὑπερβολὴν καὶ ἔλλειψιν· ἔσται γὰρ οὕτω γε 20
ὑπερβολῆς καὶ ἐλλείψεως μεσότης καὶ ὑπερβολῆς
20 ὑπερβολῆ καὶ ἔλλειψις ἐλλείψεως. ὥσπερ δὲ
σωφροσύνης καὶ ἀνδρείας οὐκ ἔστιν ὑπερβολὴ καὶ
ἐλλειψις διὰ τὸ τὸ μέσον εἶναί πως ἄκρον, οὕτως
οὐδὲ ἐκείνων μεσότης οὐδὲ ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις,
ἀλλ' ὡς ἂν πράττηται ἀμαρτάνεται· ὅλως γὰρ οὕθ' 25
ὑπερβολῆς καὶ ἐλλείψεως μεσότης ἔστιν, οὔτε
μεσότητος ὑπερβολῆ καὶ ἔλλειψις.
- vii Δεῖ δὲ τοῦτο μὴ μόνον καθόλου λέγεσθαι, ἀλλὰ
καὶ τοῖς καθ' ἕκαστα ἐφαρμόττειν· ἐν γὰρ τοῖς
περὶ τὰς πράξεις λόγοις οἱ μὲν καθόλου κοινότεροί² 30

¹ τῷ ἀξιοῦντι ? Richards.² κενώτεροι ΓΟ^b.^a See c. vii. 15. The word means 'delight at another's misfortune,' *Schadenfreude*.^b See § 17 above.

- 18 Not every action or feeling however admits of the observance of a due mean. Indeed the very names of some essentially denote evil, for instance malice,^a shamelessness, envy, and, of actions, adultery, theft, murder. All these and similar actions and feelings are blamed as being bad in themselves; it is not the excess or deficiency of them that we blame. It is impossible therefore ever to go right in regard to them—one must always be wrong; nor does right or wrong in their case depend on the circumstances, for instance, whether one commits adultery with the right woman, at the right time, and in the right manner; the mere
- 19 commission of any of them is wrong. One might as well suppose there could be a due mean and excess and deficiency in acts of injustice or cowardice or profligacy, which would imply that one could have a medium amount of excess and of deficiency, an excessive amount of excess and a deficient amount of deficiency.
- 20 But just as there can be no excess or deficiency in temperance and justice, because the mean is in a sense an extreme,^b so there can be no observance of the mean nor excess nor deficiency in the corresponding vicious acts mentioned above, but however they are committed, they are wrong; since, to put it in general terms, there is no such thing as observing a mean in excess or deficiency, nor as exceeding or falling short in the observance of a mean.
- vii We must not however rest content with stating this general definition, but must show that it applies to the particular virtues. In practical philosophy, although universal principles have a wider applica-
- Some actions and feelings necessarily vicious.
- Table of Moral Virtues as means between Vices of excess and defect.

- εἰσιν, οἱ δ' ἐπὶ μέρους ἀληθινώτεροι· περὶ γὰρ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα αἱ πράξεις, δέον δ' ἐπὶ τούτων συμφωνεῖν.¹ ληπτέον οὖν ταῦτα ἐκ τῆς διαγραφῆς.
- 2 περὶ μὲν οὖν² φόβους καὶ θάρρη ἀνδρεία μεσότης· 1107 τῶν δ' ὑπερβαλλόντων ὁ μὲν τῇ ἀφοβία ἀνώνυμος (πολλὰ δ' ἐστὶν ἀνώνυμα), ὁ δ' ἐν τῷ θαρρεῖν ὑπερβάλλον θρασύς, ὁ δὲ³ τῷ μὲν φοβεῖσθαι ὑπερ-
3 βάλλον τῷ δὲ θαρρεῖν ἐλλείπων δειλός. περὶ ἡδονὰς δὲ καὶ λύπας⁴—οὐ πάσας, ἥττον δὲ καὶ⁵ 5 περὶ τὰς λύπας—μεσότης μὲν σωφροσύνη, ὑπερβολὴ δὲ ἀκολασία· ἐλλείποντες δὲ περὶ τὰς ἡδονὰς οὐ πάνυ γίνονται, διόπερ οὐδ' ὀνόματος τετυχή-
κασιν οὐδ' οἱ τοιοῦτοι, ἔστωσαν δὲ ἀναίσθητοι.
- 4 περὶ δὲ δόσιν χρημάτων καὶ λήψιν μεσότης μὲν ἐλευθεριότης, ὑπερβολὴ δὲ καὶ ἔλλειψις ἀσωτία 10 καὶ ἀνελευθερία, ἐναντίως δὲ αὐταῖς⁶ ὑπερβάλλουσι καὶ ἐλλείπουσιν· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἄσωτος ἐν μὲν προέσει ὑπερβάλλει ἐν δὲ λήψει ἐλλείπει, ὁ δ' ἀνελεύθερος ἐν μὲν λήψει ὑπερβάλλει ἐν δὲ προέσει ἐλλείπει.
- 5 νῦν μὲν οὖν τύπῳ καὶ ἐπὶ κεφαλαίῳ λέγομεν, ἀρκούμενοι αὐτῷ τούτῳ· ὕστερον δὲ ἀκριβέστερον 15
6 περὶ αὐτῶν διορισθήσεται. περὶ δὲ τὰ χρήματα

¹ lacunam suspexit Burnet.² οὖν om. K^b.³ δὲ L^b: δ' ἐν K^b.⁴ καὶ λύπας secl. Richards: καὶ λύπας (vel οὐ πάσας) . . . περὶ τὰς λύπας secludenda? ed.⁵ καὶ <οὐχ ὁμοίως>? Bywater.⁶ δὲ αὐταῖς Stewart, Richards: δ' αὐταῖς M^b, δ' ἐαυταῖς L^b, δὲ K^b.

^a Here apparently the lecturer displayed a table of virtues, exhibiting each as a mean between two vices of excess and defect in respect of a certain class of action or feeling. This is developed in detail in Bk. III. vi.-end and Bk. IV.

tion, those covering a particular part of the field possess a higher degree of truth ; because conduct deals with particular facts, and our theories are bound to accord with these.

Let us then take the particular virtues from the diagram.^a

- 2 The observance of the mean in fear and confidence is Courage. The man that exceeds in fearlessness is not designated by any special name (and this is the case with many of the virtues and vices) ; he that exceeds in confidence is Rash ; he that exceeds in
- 3 fear and is deficient in confidence is Cowardly. In respect of pleasures and pains—not all of them, and to a less degree in respect of pains^b—the observance of the mean is Temperance, the excess Profligacy. Men deficient in the enjoyment of pleasures scarcely occur, and hence this character also has not been assigned a name, but we may call it In-
- 4 sensible. In regard to giving and getting money, the observance of the mean is Liberality ; the excess and deficiency are Prodigality and Meanness,^c and these exceed and fall short in opposite ways : the prodigal exceeds in giving and is deficient in getting, whereas the mean man exceeds in getting and is
- 5 deficient in giving. For the present then we describe these qualities in outline and summarily, which is enough for the purpose in hand ; but they will be more accurately defined later.
- 6 There are also other dispositions in relation to

^b This parenthesis looks like an interpolation from III. x. 1.

^c The Greek word is the negative of that translated Liberality, but 'illiberality' and 'illiberal' we do not usually employ with reference to money.

ARISTOTLE

καὶ ἄλλαι διαθέσεις εἰσὶ, μεσότης μὲν μεγαλο-
 πρέπεια (ὁ γὰρ μεγαλοπρεπὴς διαφέρει ἐλευθερίου·
 ὁ μὲν γὰρ περὶ μέγала, ὁ δὲ περὶ μικρά), ὑπερβολὴ
 δὲ ἀπειροκαλία καὶ βαναυσία, ἔλλειψις δὲ μικρο- 20
 πρέπεια· διαφέρουσι δ' αὖται τῶν περὶ τὴν ἐλευ-
 θεριότητα, πῇ δὲ διαφέρουσιν, ὕστερον ῥηθήσεται.
 7 περὶ δὲ τιμὴν καὶ ἀτιμίαν μεσότης μὲν μεγαλο-
 ψυχία, ὑπερβολὴ δὲ χαυνότης τις λεγομένη, ἔλ-
 8 λειψις δὲ μικροψυχία. ὥς δ' ἐλέγομεν ἔχειν πρὸς
 τὴν μεγαλοπρέπειαν τὴν ἐλευθεριότητα, <τῷ>¹ περὶ 25
 μικρὰ διαφέρονσαν, οὕτως ἔχει τις καὶ πρὸς τὴν
 μεγαλοψυχίαν, περὶ τιμὴν οὖσαν μεγάλην, αὐτὴ
 περὶ μικρὰν οὖσα· ἔστι γὰρ ὥς δεῖ ὀρέγεσθαι
 <μικρᾶς>² τιμῆς καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ καὶ ἥττον·
 λέγεται δ' ὁ μὲν ὑπερβάλλον ταῖς³ ὀρέξεσι φιλό-
 τιμος, ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων ἀφιλότιμος, ὁ δὲ μέσος 30
 ἀνώνυμος, ἀνώνυμοι δὲ καὶ αἱ διαθέσεις, πλὴν ἡ
 τοῦ φιλοτίμου φιλοτιμία· ὅθεν ἐπιδικάζονται οἱ
 ἄκροι τῆς μέσης χώρας. καὶ ἡμεῖς δὲ ἔστι μὲν
 ὅτε τὸν μέσον φιλότιμον καλοῦμεν ἔστι δ' ὅτε
 ἀφιλότιμον, καὶ ἔστι μὲν ὅτε⁴ ἐπαινοῦμεν τὸν 1108 a
 9 φιλότιμον ἔστι δ' ὅτε τὸν ἀφιλότιμον. διὰ τίνα δ'
 αἰτίαν τοῦτο ποιούμεν, ἐν τοῖς ἐξῆς ῥηθήσεται·
 νῦν δὲ περὶ τῶν λοιπῶν λέγωμεν κατὰ τὸν ὑφ-
 10 ἡγημένον τρόπον. ἔστι δὴ⁵ καὶ περὶ τὴν ὀργὴν ὑπερ-

¹ Ramsauer.

² <μικρᾶς> (vel ταύτης pro τιμῆς) ed.

³ ταύταις vel τοιαύταις ? ed.

⁴ μὲν ὅτε Bywater: ὅτε K^b, ὅτε μὲν L^b.

⁵ δὴ ed.: δὲ.

money, namely, the mode of observing the mean called Magnificence (the magnificent man being different from the liberal, as the former deals with large amounts and the latter with small ones), the excess called Tastelessness or Vulgarity, and the defect called Shabbiness. These are not the same as Liberality and the vices corresponding to it; but the way in which they differ will be discussed later.

- 7 In respect of honour and dishonour, the observance of the mean is Greatness of Soul, the excess a sort of Vanity, as it may be called, and the deficiency, 8 Smallness of Soul. And just as we said that Liberality is related to Magnificence, differing from it in being concerned with small amounts of money, so there is a certain quality related to Greatness of Soul, which is concerned with great honours, while this quality itself is concerned with small honours; for it is possible to aspire to minor honours in the right way, or more than is right, or less. He who exceeds in these aspirations is called ambitious, he who is deficient, unambitious; but the middle character has no name, and the dispositions of these persons are also unnamed, except that that of the ambitious man is called Ambitiousness. Consequently the extreme characters put in a claim to the middle position, and in fact we ourselves sometimes call the middle person ambitious and sometimes unambitious: we sometimes praise a 9 man for being ambitious, sometimes for being unambitious. Why we do so shall be discussed later; for the present let us classify the remaining virtues and vices on the lines which we have laid down.

- 10 In respect of anger also we have excess, deficiency,

- βολή καὶ ἔλλειψις καὶ μεσότης, σχεδὸν δὲ ἀνωνύμων ⁵
 ὄντων αὐτῶν τὸν μέσον πρᾶον λέγοντες τὴν
 μεσότητα πραότητα καλέσωμεν, τῶν δ' ἄκρων ὁ
 μὲν ὑπερβάλλον ὀργίλος ἔστω, ἡ δὲ κακία ὀργι-
 λότης, ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων ἀοργητός τις, ἡ δ' ἔλλειψις
- 11 ἀοργησία. εἰσὶ δὲ καὶ ἄλλαι τρεῖς μεσότητες,
 ἔχουσαι μὲν τινα ὁμοιότητα πρὸς ἀλλήλας, δια- ¹⁰
 φέρουσαι δ' ἀλλήλων. πᾶσαι μὲν γάρ εἰσι περὶ
 λόγων καὶ πράξεων κοινωνίαν, διαφέρουσι δὲ ὅτι
 ἡ μὲν ἐστὶ περὶ τἀληθές τὸ ἐν αὐτοῖς, αἱ δὲ περὶ
 τὸ ἡδύ, τούτου δὲ τὸ μὲν ἐν παιδιᾷ τὸ δ' ἐν πᾶσι
 τοῖς κατὰ τὸν βίον. ῥητέον οὖν καὶ περὶ τούτων,
 ἵνα μᾶλλον κατίδωμεν ὅτι ἐν πᾶσιν ἡ μεσότης ¹⁵
 ἐπαινετόν, τὰ δ' ἄκρα οὐτ' ὀρθὰ οὐτ' ἐπαινετὰ
 ἀλλὰ ψεκτά. εἰσὶ¹ μὲν οὖν καὶ τούτων τὰ πλείω
 ἀνώνυμα· πειρατέον δ', ὥσπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων,
 αὐτοὺς ὀνοματοποιεῖν σαφηνείας ἕνεκεν καὶ τοῦ
- 12 εὐπαρακολουθήτου. περὶ μὲν οὖν τὸ ἀληθές ὁ μὲν ²⁰
 μέσος ἀληθής τις καὶ ἡ μεσότης ἀλήθεια λεγέσθω,
 ἡ δὲ προσποιήσις ἡ μὲν ἐπὶ τὸ μείζον ἀλαζονεία
 καὶ ὁ ἔχων αὐτὴν ἀλαζών, ἡ δ' ἐπὶ τὸ ἔλαττον
- 13 εἰρωνεία καὶ <ὁ ἔχων>² εἴρων. περὶ δὲ τὸ ἡδύ
 τὸ μὲν ἐν παιδιᾷ ὁ μὲν μέσος εὐτράπελος καὶ ἡ
 διάθεσις εὐτραπελία, ἡ δ' ὑπερβολὴ βωμολοχία καὶ ²⁵

¹ εἰσὶ K^b: ἔστι vulg.

² Ramsauer.

^a From iv. vii. it appears that the quality intended is sincerity of speech and conduct in the matter of asserting one's own merits. The observance of the mean in this respect is there said to have no name; and here the form of expression apologizes for using 'Truthfulness' in so limited a sense. The defect in this respect Aristotle expressed by *εἰρωνεία*, a word specially associated with the affectation of ignorance practised by Socrates. Neither this nor its

and the observance of the mean. These states are virtually without names, but as we call a person of the middle character gentle, let us name the observance of the mean Gentleness, while of the extremes, he that exceeds may be styled irascible and his vice Irascibility, and he that is deficient, spiritless, and the deficiency Spiritlessness.

11 There are also three other modes of observing a mean which bear some resemblance to each other, and yet are different; all have to do with intercourse in conversation and action, but they differ in that one is concerned with truthfulness of speech and behaviour, and the other with pleasantness, in its two divisions of pleasantness in social amusement and pleasantness in the general affairs of life. We must then discuss these qualities also, in order the better to discern that in all things the observance of the mean is to be praised, while the extremes are neither right nor praiseworthy, but reprehensible. Most of these qualities also are unnamed, but in these as in the other cases we must attempt to coin names for them ourselves, for the sake of clearness and so that our meaning may be easily followed.

12 In respect of truth then, the middle character may be called truthful, and the observance of the mean Truthfulness^a; pretence in the form of exaggeration is Boastfulness, and its possessor a boaster; in the form of understatement, Self-depreciation, and its possessor the self-depreciator.

13 In respect of pleasantness in social amusement, the middle character is witty and the middle disposition Wittiness; the excess is Buffoonery and

other shades of meaning correspond very closely to that of its English derivative *irony*.

- ὁ ἔχων αὐτὴν βωμολόχος, ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων ἀγροϊκός
 τις καὶ ἡ ἕξις ἀγροικία· περὶ δὲ τὸ λοιπὸν ἡδὺν
 τὸ ἐν τῷ βίῳ ὁ μὲν ὡς δεῖ ἡδὺς ὢν φίλος καὶ
 ἡ μεσότης φιλία, ὁ δ' ὑπερβάλλων, εἰ μὲν οὐδενὸς
 ἔνεκα, ἄρεσκος, εἰ δ' ὠφελείας τῆς αὐτοῦ, κόλαξ,
 ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων καὶ ἐν πάσιν ἀηδὴς δύσερίς τις καὶ ³⁰
 14 δύσκολος. εἰσὶ δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς παθήμασι καὶ περὶ¹
 τὰ πάθη μεσότητες· ἡ γὰρ αἰδώς² ἀρετὴ μὲν οὐκ
 ἔστιν, ἐπαινεῖται δέ, καὶ ὁ αἰδήμων. καὶ γὰρ ἐν
 τούτοις ὁ μὲν λέγεται μέσος, ὁ δ' ὑπερβάλλων, ὡς
 ὁ καταπλήξῃ ὁ πάντα αἰδούμενος· ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων ἡ ³⁵
 μηδὲν³ ὅλως ἀναίσχυντος, ὁ δὲ μέσος αἰδήμων. ¹¹⁰⁸
 15 νέμεσις δὲ μεσότης φθόνου καὶ ἐπιχαιρεκακίας,
 εἰσὶ δὲ περὶ λύπην καὶ ἡδονὴν τὰς ἐπὶ τοῖς συμ-
 βαίνουσι τοῖς πέλας γινομένας· ὁ μὲν γὰρ νεμεση-
 τικὸς λυπεῖται ἐπὶ τοῖς ἀναξίως εὖ πράττουσιν, ὁ
 δὲ φθονερός ὑπερβάλλων τοῦτον ἐπὶ πᾶσι λυπεῖται,⁴ ⁵
 ὁ δ' ἐπιχαιρέκακος τοσοῦτον ἐλλείπει τοῦ λυπεῖσθαι
 16 ὥστε καὶ χαίρειν. ἀλλὰ περὶ μὲν τούτων καὶ
 ἄλλοθι καιρὸς ἔσται· περὶ δὲ δικαιοσύνης, ἐπεὶ
 οὐχ ἀπλῶς λέγεται, μετὰ τὰῦτα διελόμενοι περὶ

¹ παθήμασι καὶ περὶ K^b: πάθεσι καὶ ἐν τοῖς περὶ.

² ἡ γὰρ αἰδώς . . . ὁ αἰδήμων post ὁ δὲ μέσος αἰδήμων infra
 transponenda ed. ³ μηδὲν K^b: ὁ μηδὲ vulg.

⁴ λυπεῖται <καὶ ὁ μὲν νεμεσητικὸς ἐπὶ τοῖς ἀναξίως κακῶς πράτ-
 τουσιν. λυπεῖται> Sauppe.

^a This sentence in the mss. follows the next one.

^b See vi. 18 (and note): there envy and 'rejoicing-in-evil' come in a list of feelings in which a due mean is impossible; and in *Rhet.* ii. ix. 1386 b 34 they are said to be two sides of the same character. The present attempt to force them into the scheme as opposite extremes is not very successful, and it is noteworthy that this group of qualities is omitted in Bk. IV.

its possessor a buffoon; the deficient man may be called boorish, and his disposition Boorishness. In respect of general pleasantness in life, the man who is pleasant in the proper manner is friendly, and the observance of the mean is Friendliness; he that exceeds, if from no interested motive, is complaisant, if for his own advantage, a flatterer; he that is deficient, and unpleasant in all the affairs of life, may be called peevish and surly.

- 14 There are also modes of observing a mean in the sphere of and in relation to the feelings. For^a in these also one man is spoken of as moderate and another as excessive—for example the grovelling man who is ashamed of everything; while he that is deficient in shame, or ashamed of nothing whatsoever, is shameless, and the man of middle character modest. For though Modesty is not a virtue, it is praised, and so is the modest man.
- 15 Again, Righteous Indignation is the observance of a mean between Envy and Malice,^b and these qualities are concerned with pain and pleasure felt at the fortunes of one's neighbours. The righteously indignant man is pained by undeserved good fortune; the jealous man exceeds him and is pained by all the good fortune of others;^c while the malicious man so far falls short of being pained that he actually feels pleasure.
- 16 These qualities however it will be time to discuss in another place. After them we will treat Justice, distinguishing its two kinds—for it has more than one sense—and showing in what way each is a mode

^a It is difficult not to think that some words have been lost here, such as 'and the righteously indignant man is pained by the undeserved misfortune of others.'

- ἐκατέρας ἐροῦμεν πῶς μεσότητές εἰσιν [ὁμοίως δὲ
καὶ περὶ τῶν λογικῶν ἀρετῶν].¹ 10
- viii Τριῶν δὴ διαθέσεων οὐσῶν, δύο μὲν κακιῶν, τῆς
μὲν καθ' ὑπερβολὴν τῆς δὲ κατ' ἔλλειψιν, μιᾶς δ'
ἀρετῆς τῆς μεσότητος, πᾶσαι πάσαις ἀντίκεινται
πῶς· αἱ μὲν γὰρ ἄκραι καὶ τῇ μέσῃ καὶ ἀλλήλαις
2 ἐναντίαι εἰσίν, ἡ δὲ μέση ταῖς ἄκραις· ὥσπερ γὰρ 15
τὸ ἴσον πρὸς μὲν τὸ ἕλαττον μείζον πρὸς δὲ τὸ
μείζον ἕλαττον, οὕτως αἱ μέσαι ἕξεις πρὸς μὲν
τὰς ἐλλείψεις ὑπερβάλλουσι πρὸς δὲ τὰς ὑπερβολὰς
ἐλλείπουσιν ἔν τε τοῖς πάθεσι καὶ ταῖς πράξεσιν.
ὁ γὰρ ἀνδρεῖος πρὸς μὲν τὸν δειλὸν θρασὺς φαίνε-
ται, πρὸς δὲ τὸν θρασὺν δειλός· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ὁ 20
σώφρων πρὸς μὲν τὸν ἀναίσθητον ἀκόλαστος, πρὸς
δὲ τὸν ἀκόλαστον ἀναίσθητος, ὁ δ' ἐλευθέριος
πρὸς μὲν τὸν ἀνελεύθερον ἄσωτος, πρὸς δὲ τὸν
3 ἄσωτον ἀνελεύθερος. διὸ καὶ ἀπωθοῦνται τὸν μέσον
οἱ ἄκροισι ἐκάτερος πρὸς ἐκάτερον, καὶ καλοῦσι
τὸν ἀνδρεῖον ὁ μὲν δειλὸς θρασὺν ὁ δὲ θρασὺς 25
4 δειλόν, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἀνάλογον. οὕτω δ'
ἀντικειμένων ἀλλήλοις τούτων, πλείστη² ἐναντιότης
ἐστὶ τοῖς ἄκροισι πρὸς ἀλλήλα [ἢ πρὸς τὸ μέσον].³
πορρωτέρω γὰρ ταῦτα ἀφέστηκεν ἀλλήλων ἢ τοῦ
μέσου, ὥσπερ τὸ μέγα τοῦ μικροῦ καὶ τὸ μικρὸν
5 τοῦ μεγάλου ἢ ἁμφω τοῦ ἴσου. ἔτι πρὸς μὲν τὸ 30

¹ Grant.² πλείων Γ.³ ed.

^a Grant rightly rejects this sentence, since the intellectual virtues are nowhere else thus designated by Aristotle, nor does he regard them as modes of observing a mean.

^b This sentence should perhaps follow the next one, as it

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of observing the mean. [And we will deal similarly with the logical virtues.^a]

viii There are then three dispositions—two vices, one of excess and one of defect, and one virtue which is the observance of the mean; and each of them is in a certain way opposed to both the others. For the extreme states are the opposite both of the middle state and of each other, and the middle

Opposition
of Virtues
and Vices.

2 state is the opposite of both extremes; since just as the equal is greater in comparison with the less and less in comparison with the greater, so the middle states of character are in excess as compared with the defective states and defective as compared with the excessive states, whether in the case of feelings or of actions. For instance, a brave man appears rash in contrast with a coward and cowardly in contrast with a rash man; similarly a temperate man appears profligate in contrast with a man insensible to pleasure and pain, but insensible in contrast with a profligate; and a liberal man seems prodigal in contrast with a mean man, mean

3 in contrast with one who is prodigal. Hence either extreme character tries to push the middle character towards the other extreme; a coward calls a brave man rash and a rash man calls him a coward, and correspondingly in other cases.

4 But while all three dispositions are thus opposed to one another, the greatest degree of opposition exists between the two extremes. For the extremes are farther apart from each other than from the mean, just as great is farther from small and small

5 from great than either from equal. Again^b some

gives a second test of opposition, viz. unlikeness. However, unlikeness and remoteness are blended together in § 7.

μέσον ἐνίοις ἄκροις ὁμοιότης τις φαίνεται,¹ ὡς τῇ
 θρασύτητι πρὸς τὴν ἀνδρείαν καὶ τῇ ἀσωτίᾳ πρὸς
 τὴν ἐλευθεριότητα· τοῖς δὲ ἄκροις πρὸς ἄλληλα
 πλείστη ἀνομοιότης. τὰ δὲ πλείστον ἀπέχοντα ἀπ’
 ἀλλήλων ἐναντία ὀρίζονται, ὥστε καὶ μᾶλλον ἐν- 35
 6 ἀντία τὰ πλείον ἀπέχοντα. πρὸς δὲ τὸ μέσον ἀντί-
 κειται μᾶλλον ἐφ’ ὧν μὲν ἡ ἔλλειψις ἐφ’ ὧν δὲ ἡ 1108 a
 ὑπερβολή, οἷον ἀνδρεία μὲν οὐχ ἡ θρασύτης ὑπερ-
 βολή οὖσα, ἀλλ’ ἡ δειλία ἔλλειψις οὖσα, τῇ δὲ
 σωφροσύνη οὐχ ἡ ἀναισθησία ἐνδεια οὖσα, ἀλλ’ ἡ
 7 ἀκολασία ὑπερβολή οὖσα. διὰ δύο δ’ αἰτίας τοῦτο 5
 συμβαίνει, μίαν μὲν τὴν ἐξ αὐτοῦ τοῦ πράγματος·
 τῷ γὰρ ἐγγύτερον εἶναι καὶ ὁμοιότερον τὸ ἕτερον
 ἄκρον τῷ μέσῳ, οὐ τοῦτο ἀλλὰ τοῦναντίον ἀντι-
 τίθεμεν μᾶλλον, οἷον ἐπεὶ ὁμοιότερον εἶναι δοκεῖ τῇ
 ἀνδρείᾳ ἢ θρασύτητι καὶ ἐγγύτερον, ἀνομοιότερον
 δ’ ἡ δειλία, ταύτην μᾶλλον ἀντιτίθεμεν· τὰ γὰρ 10
 ἀπέχοντα πλείον τοῦ μέσου ἐναντιώτερα δοκεῖ
 8 εἶναι. μία μὲν οὖν αἰτία αὕτη, ἐξ αὐτοῦ τοῦ πράγ-
 ματος, ἑτέρα δὲ ἐξ ἡμῶν αὐτῶν· πρὸς ἃ γὰρ αὐτοὶ
 μᾶλλον πεφύκαμέν² πως, ταῦτα μᾶλλον ἐναντία τῷ
 μέσῳ φαίνεται· οἷον αὐτοὶ μᾶλλον πεφύκαμεν
 πρὸς τὰς ἡδονάς, διὸ εὐκατάφοροί³ ἐσμεν⁴ πρὸς 15
 ἀκολασίαν [ἢ πρὸς κοσμιότητα].⁵ ταῦτ’ οὖν μᾶλ-
 λον ἐναντία λέγομεν, πρὸς ἃ ἡ ἐπίδοσις μᾶλλον
 γίνεται· καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἡ ἀκολασία ὑπερβολή οὖσα
 ἐναντιωτέρα ἐστὶ τῇ σωφροσύνῃ.

¹ φαίνεται <εἶναι>? ed.

² ἔχομεν pr, K^b: ῥέπομεν? Bywater.

³ εὐκαταφορώτεροι Γ.

⁴ ἔσμεν μᾶλλον Turnebus.

⁵ Spengel.

^a These words are probably an interpolation, since the sense requires ‘more than to Insensibility.’

extremes show a certain likeness to the mean—for instance, Rashness resembles Courage, Prodigality Liberality, whereas the extremes display the greatest unlikeness to one another. But it is things most remote from each other that are defined as opposites, so that the more remote things are the more opposed they are.

- 6 And in some cases the defect, in others the excess, is more opposed to the mean; for example, Cowardice, which is a vice of deficiency, is more opposed to Courage than is Rashness, which is a vice of excess; but Profligacy, or excess of feeling, is more opposed to Temperance than is Insensibility,
- 7 or lack of feeling. This results from either of two causes. One of these arises from the thing itself: owing to one extreme being nearer to the mean and resembling it more, we count not this but rather the contrary extreme as the opposite of the mean; for example, because Rashness seems to resemble Courage more than Cowardice does, and to be nearer to it, we reckon Cowardice rather than Rashness as the opposite of Courage; for those extremes which are more remote from the mean
- 8 seem to be the more opposed to it. This then is one cause, arising out of the thing itself. The other cause has its origin in us: those things appear more opposed to the mean to which we are ourselves more inclined by our nature. For example, we are of ourselves more inclined to pleasure, which is why we are liable to Profligacy [more than to Sobriety].^a We therefore rather call those things the opposite of the mean, into which we are more inclined to lapse; and hence Profligacy, the excess, is more particularly the opposite of Temperance.

- ix "Οτι μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ἡ ἀρετὴ ἡ ἠθικὴ μεσότης, καὶ 20
 πῶς, καὶ ὅτι μεσότης δύο κακιῶν, τῆς μὲν καθ'
 ὑπερβολὴν τῆς δὲ κατ' ἔλλειψιν, καὶ ὅτι τοιαύτη
 ἐστὶ διὰ τὸ στοχαστικὴ τοῦ μέσου εἶναι τοῦ ἐν
 τοῖς πάθεσι καὶ ταῖς πράξεσιν, ἱκανῶς εἴρηται.
 2 διὸ καὶ ἔργον ἐστὶ σπουδαῖον εἶναι· ἐν ἐκάστω γὰρ 25
 τὸ μέσον λαβεῖν ἔργον, οἷον κύκλου τὸ μέσον οὐ
 παντὸς ἀλλὰ τοῦ εἰδότος· οὕτω δὲ καὶ τὸ μὲν
 ὀργισθῆναι παντὸς καὶ ῥάδιον, καὶ τὸ δοῦναι
 ἀργύριον καὶ δαπανῆσαι· τὸ δ' ὥ *<δεῖ>*¹ καὶ ὅσον
 καὶ ὅτε καὶ οὐ ἔνεκα καὶ ὥς, οὐκέτι παντὸς οὐδὲ
 ῥάδιον· διόπερ τὸ εὖ καὶ σπάνιον καὶ ἐπαινετὸν
 3 καὶ καλόν. διὸ δεῖ τὸν στοχαζόμενον τοῦ μέσου 30
 πρῶτον μὲν ἀποχωρεῖν τοῦ μᾶλλον ἐναντίου, καθ-
 ἄπερ καὶ ἡ Καλυψὼ παραινεῖ

τούτου μὲν καπνοῦ καὶ κύματος ἐκτὸς ἔεργε
 νῆα.

- τῶν γὰρ ἄκρων τὸ μὲν ἐστὶν ἀμαρτωλότερον, τὸ δ'
 4 ἥττον· ἐπεὶ οὖν τοῦ μέσου τυχεῖν ἄκρως² χαλεπόν,
 κατὰ τὸν δεύτερον, φασί, πλοῦν τὰ ἐλάχιστα 35
 ληπτέον τῶν κακῶν· τοῦτο δ' ἔσται μάλιστα
 τοῦτον τὸν τρόπον ὃν λέγομεν. σκοπεῖν δὲ δεῖ
 πρὸς ἃ καὶ αὐτοὶ εὐκατάφοροί ἐσμεν (ἄλλοι γὰρ
 πρὸς ἄλλα πεφύκαμεν)—τοῦτο δ' ἔσται γνώριμον

¹ Ramsauer.

² ἀκριβῶς Richards.

^a *Od.* xii. 219: really the words are said by Odysseus, conveying to his steersman Circe's advice, to avoid the whirlpool of Charybdis which will engulf them all, and steer nearer to the monster Scylla who will devour only some of them.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. ix. 1-4

- ix Enough has now been said to show that moral virtue is a mean, and in what sense this is so, namely that it is a mean between two vices, one of excess and the other of defect; and that it is such a mean because it aims at hitting the middle point in feelings and in actions. This is why it is a hard task to be good, for it is hard to find the middle point in anything: for instance, not everybody can find the centre of a circle, but only someone who knows geometry. So also anybody can become angry—that is easy, and so it is to give and spend money; but to be angry with or give money to the right person, and to the right amount, and at the right time, and for the right purpose, and in the right way—this is not within everybody's power and is not easy; so that to do these things properly is rare, praiseworthy, and noble.
- 2
- 3 Hence the first rule in aiming at the mean is to avoid that extreme which is the more opposed to the mean, as Calypso advises ^a—

Practical
rules for
hitting the
mean.

Steer the ship clear of yonder spray and surge.

- For of the two extremes one is a more serious error than the other. Hence, inasmuch as to hit the mean extremely well is difficult, the second best way to sail,^b as the saying goes, is to take the least of the evils; and the best way to do this is the way we enjoin.

The second rule is to notice what are the errors to which we are ourselves most prone (as different men are inclined by nature to different faults)—and

^b A proverb, meaning to take to the oars when the wind fails.

ARISTOTLE

ἐκ τῆς ἡδονῆς καὶ τῆς λύπης τῆς γυνομένης περὶ
 5 ἡμᾶς—εἰς τοῦναντίον δ' ἑαυτοὺς ἀφέλκειν [δεῖ]¹. 5
 πολὺ γὰρ ἀπάγοντες τοῦ ἀμαρτάνειν εἰς τὸ μέσον
 ἤξομεν· ὅπερ οἱ τὰ διεστραμμένα τῶν ξύλων
 6 ὀρθοῦντες ποιοῦσιν. ἐν παντὶ δὲ μάλιστα φύλα-
 κτέον τὸ ἡδὺ καὶ τὴν ἡδονήν· οὐ γὰρ ἀδέκαστοι
 κρίνομεν αὐτήν. ὅπερ οὖν οἱ δημογέροντες ἔπαθον
 πρὸς τὴν Ἑλένην, τοῦτο δεῖ παθεῖν καὶ ἡμᾶς πρὸς 10
 τὴν ἡδονήν, καὶ ἐν πάσι τὴν ἐκείνων ἐπιλέγειν
 φωνήν· οὕτω γὰρ αὐτὴν ἀποπεμπόμενοι ἦττον
 7 ἀμαρτησόμεθα. ταῦτ' οὖν ποιοῦντες, ὥς ἐν κε-
 φαλαίῳ εἰπεῖν, μάλιστα δυνησόμεθα τοῦ μέσου
 τυγχάνειν. χαλεπὸν δ' ἴσως τοῦτο, καὶ μάλιστ'
 ἐν τοῖς καθ' ἕκαστον· οὐ γὰρ ῥάδιον διορίσαι πῶς 15
 καὶ τίσι καὶ ἐπὶ ποίοις καὶ πόσον χρόνον ὀργιστέον·
 καὶ γὰρ ἡμεῖς ὅτε μὲν τοὺς ἐλλείποντας ἐπαινοῦμεν
 καὶ πράους φαμέν, ὅτε δὲ τοὺς χαλεπαίνοντας
 8 ἀνδρώδεις ἀποκαλοῦντες.² ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν μικρὸν τοῦ εὖ
 παρεκβαίνων οὐ ψέγεται, οὗτ' ἐπὶ τὸ μαῖλλον οὗτ'
 ἐπὶ τὸ ἥττω, ὁ δὲ πλέον· οὗτος γὰρ οὐ λανθάνει. 20
 ὅ^ς δὲ μέχρι τίνος καὶ ἐπὶ πόσον ψεκτὸς οὐ ῥάδιον
 τῷ λόγῳ ἀφορίσαι· οὐδὲ γὰρ ἄλλο οὐδὲν τῶν
 αἰσθητῶν· τὰ δὲ τοιαῦτα ἐν τοῖς καθ' ἕκαστα, καὶ
 9 ἐν τῇ αἰσθήσει ἢ κρίσει. τὸ μὲν ἄρα τοσοῦτο

¹ ed.² ἀποκαλοῦμεν L^b.^a *Iliad* iii. 156-160.

we shall discover what these are by observing the
 5 pleasure or pain that we experience—; then we must
 drag ourselves away in the opposite direction, for
 by steering wide of our besetting error we shall
 make a middle course. This is the method adopted
 by carpenters to straighten warped timber.

6 Thirdly, we must in everything be most of all on
 our guard against what is pleasant and against
 pleasure; for when pleasure is on her trial we are
 not impartial judges. The right course is therefore
 to feel towards pleasure as the elders of the people
 felt towards Helen,^a and to apply their words to
 her on every occasion; for if we roundly bid her
 be gone, we shall be less likely to err.

7 These then, to sum up the matter, are the pre-
 cautions that will best enable us to hit the mean.
 But no doubt it is a difficult thing to do, and especi-
 ally in particular cases: for instance, it is not easy
 to define in what manner and with what people and
 on what sort of grounds and how long one ought
 to be angry; and in fact we sometimes praise men
 who err on the side of defect in this matter and call
 them gentle, sometimes those who are quick to
 8 anger and style them manly. However, though
 we do not blame one who diverges only a little from
 the right course, whether on the side of the too
 much or of the too little, we do blame one who
 diverges more widely, and to a noticeable extent.
 Yet to what degree and how seriously a man must
 err to be blamed is not easy to define on principle.
 For in fact no object of perception is easy to define;
 and such questions of degree depend on particular
 circumstances, and the decision lies with perception.

9 Thus much then is clear, that it is the middle

ARISTOTLE

δηλοῖ,¹ ὅτι ἡ μέση ἔξις ἐν πᾶσιν ἐπαινετή, ἀπο-
κλίνειν δὲ δεῖ ὅτε μὲν ἐπὶ τὴν ὑπερβολὴν ὅτε δ' ²⁵
ἐπὶ τὴν ἑλλειψιν· οὕτω γὰρ ῥᾶστα τοῦ μέσου καὶ
τοῦ ἐν τευχόμεθα.

¹ δηλον codd. Morellii.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, II. ix. 9

disposition in each department of conduct that is to be praised, but that one should lean sometimes to the side of excess and sometimes to that of deficiency, since this is the easiest way of hitting the mean and the right course.

Γ

- i Τῆς ἀρετῆς δὴ περὶ πάθῃ τε καὶ πράξεις οὔσης, 30
καὶ ἐπὶ μὲν τοῖς ἐκούσίοις ἐπαίνων καὶ ψόγων
γινομένων, ἐπὶ δὲ τοῖς ἀκουσίοις συγγνώμης,
ἐνίοτε δὲ καὶ ἐλέου, τὸ ἐκούσιον καὶ τὸ ἀκούσιον
ἀναγκαῖον ἴσως διορίσαι τοῖς περὶ ἀρετῆς ἐπι-
σκοποῦσι· χρήσιμον δὲ καὶ τοῖς νομοθετοῦσι πρὸς
2 τε τὰς τιμὰς καὶ τὰς κολάσεις. δοκεῖ δὴ¹ ἀκούσια 35
3 εἶναι τὰ βία ἢ δι' ἄγνοιαν γινόμενα· βίαιον δὲ οὐ¹¹¹⁰ α
ἢ ἀρχὴ ἐξώθεν, τοιαύτῃ οὔσα ἐν ἣ ἡ μηδὲν συμ-
βάλλεται ὁ πράττων ἢ ὁ πάσχων, οἷον εἰ πνεῦμα
4 κομίσαι ποι ἢ ἄνθρωποι κύριοι ὄντες. ὅσα δὲ διὰ
φόβον μειζόνων κακῶν πράττεται ἢ διὰ καλόν τι, 5
οἷον εἰ τύραννος προστάττοι αἰσχρόν τι πράξαι
κύριος ὢν γονέων καὶ τέκνων, καὶ πράξαντος μὲν²
σώζονται, μὴ πράξαντος δ' ἀποθνήσκοιεν, ἀμφι-
σβήτησιν ἔχει πότερον ἀκούσιά ἐστιν ἢ ἐκούσια.

¹ δὴ codd. Morellii: δέ.

² μὲν <ἀν> ? Richards.

^a ἐκούσιον and ἀκούσιον are most conveniently rendered 'voluntary' and 'involuntary'; but the word ἀκούσιον suggests 'unwilling' or 'against the will,' and to this meaning Aristotle limits it in § 13. There he introduces a third term, οὐχ ἐκούσιον, 'not voluntary' or 'not willing,' to describe acts done in ignorance of their full circumstances and consequences, and so not willed in the full sense; but such acts when subsequently regretted by the agent he

BOOK III

i VIRTUE then is concerned with feelings and actions. But it is only voluntary feelings and actions for which praise and blame are given; those that are involuntary are condoned, and sometimes even pitied. Hence it seems to be necessary for the student of ethics to define the difference between the Voluntary and the Involuntary^a; and this will also be of service to the legislator in assigning rewards and punishments.

cc. i-v. Moral Responsibility.
c. 1 The Voluntary and Involuntary.

2 It is then generally held that actions are involuntary when done (a) under compulsion or (b) through ignorance; and that (a) an act is compulsory when its origin is from without, being of such a nature that the agent, or person compelled, contributes nothing to it: for example, when a ship's captain is carried somewhere by stress of weather, or by people who have him in their power. But there is some doubt about actions done through fear of a worse alternative, or for some noble object—as for instance if a tyrant having a man's parents and children in his power commands him to do something base, when if he complies their lives will be spared but if he refuses they will be put to death. It is open to question whether such

paradoxically includes in the class of ἀκούσια or involuntary acts.

ARISTOTLE

5 τοιοῦτον δέ τι συμβαίνει καὶ περὶ τὰς ἐν τοῖς
 χειμῶσιν ἐκβολάς· ἀπλῶς μὲν γὰρ οὐδεὶς ἀπο-
 βάλλεται ἐκὼν, ἐπὶ σωτηρίᾳ δ' αὐτοῦ καὶ τῶν 10
 6 λοιπῶν ἅπαντες οἱ νοῦν ἔχοντες. μικταὶ μὲν οὖν
 εἰσὶν αἱ τοιαῦται πράξεις, εἰκάσι δὲ μᾶλλον
 ἐκουσίοις. αἰρεταὶ γὰρ εἰσι τότε ὅτε πράττονται.
 τὸ δὲ τέλος τῆς πράξεως κατὰ τὸν καιρὸν ἐστίν,
 καὶ τὸ ἐκούσιον δὴ καὶ τὸ ἀκούσιον ὅτε πράττει 15
 λεκτέον· πράττει δὲ ἐκὼν· καὶ γὰρ ἡ ἀρχὴ τοῦ
 κινεῖν τὰ ὀργανικὰ μέρη ἐν ταῖς τοιαύταις πράξεσιν
 ἐν αὐτῷ ἐστίν, ὧν δ' ἐν αὐτῷ ἡ ἀρχή, ἐπ' αὐτῷ
 καὶ τὸ πράττειν καὶ μή. ἐκούσια δὴ τὰ τοιαῦτα,
 ἀπλῶς δ' ἴσως ἀκούσια· οὐδεὶς γὰρ ἂν ἔλοιτο καθ'
 7 αὐτὸ τῶν τοιούτων οὐδέν. ἐπὶ ταῖς πράξεσι δὲ ταῖς 20
 τοιαύταις ἐνίοτε καὶ ἐπαινοῦνται, ὅταν αἰσχρὸν τι
 ἢ λυπηρὸν ὑπομένωσιν ἀντὶ μεγάλων καὶ καλῶν· ἂν
 δ' ἀνάπαλιν, ψέγονται, τὰ γὰρ αἰσχυρὰ ὑπομεῖναι
 ἐπὶ μηδενὶ καλῷ ἢ μετρίῳ φαύλου. ἐπ' ἐνίοις
 δ' ἔπαινος μὲν οὐ γίνεται, συγγνώμη δ', ὅταν διὰ
 τοιαῦτα πράξῃ τις ἃ μὴ δεῖ, ἃ τὴν ἀνθρωπίνην 25
 8 φύσιν ὑπερτείνει καὶ μηδεὶς ἂν ὑπομεῖναι. ἔνια δ'
 ἴσως οὐκ ἔστιν ἀναγκασθῆναι, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον ἀπο-
 θανετέον παθόντι τὰ δεινότατα· καὶ γὰρ τὸν

^a i.e., partly voluntary, partly involuntary.

^b Which shows that the acts are regarded as voluntary (Peters).

^c i.e., some acts are so repulsive that a man's abhorrence of them must be stronger than any pressure that can be put on him to commit them; so that if he commits them he must be held to have chosen to do so.

5 actions are voluntary or involuntary. A somewhat similar case is when cargo is jettisoned in a storm ; apart from circumstances, no one voluntarily throws away his property, but to save his own life and that
6 of his shipmates any sane man would do so. Acts of this kind, then, are 'mixed' or composite^a ; but they approximate rather to the voluntary class. For at the actual time when they are done they are chosen or willed ; and the end or motive of an act varies with the occasion, so that the terms 'voluntary' and 'involuntary' should be used with reference to the time of action ; now the actual deed in the cases in question is done voluntarily, for the origin of the movement of the parts of the body instrumental to the act lies in the agent ; and when the origin of an action is in one-self, it is in one's own power to do it or not. Such acts therefore are voluntary, though perhaps involuntary apart from circumstances—for no one would choose to do any such action in and for itself.

7 Sometimes indeed men are actually praised^b for deeds of this 'mixed' class, namely when they submit to some disgrace or pain as the price of some great and noble object ; though if they do so without any such motive they are blamed, since it is contemptible to submit to a great disgrace with no advantage or only a trifling one in view. In other cases again, such submission though not praised is condoned, when a man does something wrong through fear of penalties that impose too great a strain on human nature, and that no one
8 could endure. Yet there seem to be some acts which a man cannot be compelled to do,^c and rather than do them he ought to submit to the most terrible

ARISTOTLE

- Εὐριπίδου Ἀλκμαίωνα γελοῖα φαίνεται τὰ ἀναγ-
 9 κάσαντα μητροκτονῆσαι. ἔστι δὲ χαλεπὸν ἐνίστε
 διακρῖναι ποῖον ἀντὶ ποίου αἵρετέον καὶ τί ἀντὶ 30
 τίνος ὑπομενετέον, ἔτι δὲ χαλεπώτερον ἐμμεῖναι
 τοῖς γνωσθεῖσιν· ὥς γὰρ ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ ἐστὶ τὰ μὲν
 προσδοκώμενα λυπηρά, ἃ δ' ἀναγκάζονται αἰσχροί,
 ὅθεν ἔπαινοι καὶ ψόγοι γίνονται περὶ τοὺς ἀναγ-
 10 κασθέντας ἢ μή. τὰ δὴ ποῖα φατέον βίαια; ἢ
 ἀπλῶς μὲν, ὅπότ' ἂν ἡ αἰτία ἐν τοῖς ἐκτὸς ἦ καὶ ὁ
 πράττων μηδὲν συμβάλληται; ἃ δὲ καθ' αὐτὰ μὲν 5
 ἀκούσιά ἐστι, νῦν δὲ καὶ ἀντὶ τῶνδε αἵρετά, καὶ ἡ
 ἀρχὴ ἐν τῷ πράττοντι, καθ' αὐτὰ μὲν ἀκούσιά
 ἐστὶ, νῦν δὲ καὶ ἀντὶ τῶνδε ἐκούσια. μᾶλλον δ'
 ἔοικεν ἐκούσιους· αἱ γὰρ πράξεις ἐν τοῖς καθ'
 ἕκαστα, ταῦτα δ' ἐκούσια. ποῖα δ' ἀντὶ ποίων
 αἵρετέον, οὐ ῥάδιον ἀποδοῦναι· πολλὰ γὰρ δια-
 11 φοραὶ εἰσιν ἐν τοῖς καθ' ἕκαστα. εἰ δέ τις τὰ
 ἡδέα καὶ τὰ καλὰ φαίῃ βίαια εἶναι (ἀναγκάζειν 10
 γὰρ ἔξω ὄντα), πάντα ἂν εἴη οὕτω¹ βίαια. τούτων
 γὰρ χάριν πάντες πάντα πράττουσιν. καὶ οἱ μὲν

¹ οὕτω Γ : αὐτῷ.

^a In a play now lost, Eriphyle was bribed with a necklace to induce her husband Amphiaras, king of Argos, to join the expedition of the Seven against Thebes. Foreseeing he would lose his life, he charged his sons to avenge his death upon their mother, invoking on them famine and childlessness if they disobeyed.

^b There is no such thing as an act which is not this particular act in these particular circumstances (Burnet).

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, III. i. 8-11

death: for instance, we think it ridiculous that Alcmaeon in Euripides' play^a is compelled by
 9 certain threats to murder his mother! But it is sometimes difficult to decide how far we ought to go in choosing to do a given act rather than suffer a given penalty, or in enduring a given penalty rather than commit a given action; and it is still more difficult to abide by our decision when made, since in most of such dilemmas the penalty threatened is painful and the deed forced upon us dishonourable, which is why praise and blame are bestowed according as we do or do not yield to such compulsion.

10 What kind of actions then are to be called 'compulsory'? Used without qualification, perhaps this term applies to any case where the cause of the action lies in things outside the agent, and when the agent contributes nothing. But when actions intrinsically involuntary are yet in given circumstances deliberately chosen in preference to a given alternative, and when their origin lies in the agent, these actions are to be pronounced intrinsically involuntary but voluntary in the circumstances, and in preference to the alternative. They approximate however rather to the voluntary class, since conduct consists of particular things done,^b and the particular things done in the cases in question are voluntary. But it is not easy to lay down rules for deciding which of two alternatives is to be chosen, for particular cases differ widely.

Compulsory
acts defined.

11 To apply the term 'compulsory' to acts done for the sake of pleasure or for noble objects, on the plea that these exercise constraint on us from without, is to make every action compulsory. For (1) pleasure and nobility between them supply the

ARISTOTLE

- βία καὶ ἄκοντες λυπηρῶς, οἱ δὲ διὰ τὸ ἡδὺ καὶ
καλὸν μεθ' ἡδονῆς. γελοῖον δέ¹ τὸ αἰτιασθαι τὰ
ἐκτός, ἀλλὰ μὴ αὐτὸν εὐθήρατον ὄντα ὑπὸ τῶν
τοιούτων, καὶ τῶν μὲν καλῶν ἑαυτόν, τῶν δ'¹⁵
- 12 αἰσχυρῶν τὰ ἡδέα. ἔοικε δὴ [τὸ]² βίαιον εἶναι· οὐ
ἔξωθεν ἢ ἀρχῇ, μηδὲν συμβαλλομένου τοῦ βια-
σθέντος.
- 13 Τὸ δὲ δι' ἄγνοιαν οὐχ ἐκούσιον μὲν ἅπαν ἐστίν,
ἀκούσιον δὲ τὸ ἐπίλυπον καὶ ἐν μεταμελείᾳ· ὁ
γὰρ δι' ἄγνοιαν πράξας ὁτιοῦν, μηδὲν τι³ δυσ- 20
χεραίνων ἐπὶ τῇ πράξει, ἐκῶν μὲν οὐ πέπραχεν, ὃ
γε μὴ ᾔδει, οὐδ' αὖ ἄκων, μὴ λυπούμενός γε. τοῦ
δὴ δι' ἄγνοιαν ὁ μὲν ἐν μεταμελείᾳ ἄκων δοκεῖ, ὁ
δὲ μὴ μεταμελόμενος, ἐπεὶ ἕτερος, ἔστω οὐχ ἐκῶν·
ἐπεὶ γὰρ διαφέρει, βέλτιον ὄνομα ἔχειν ἴδιον.
- 14 ἕτερον δ' ἔοικε καὶ τὸ δι' ἄγνοιαν πράττειν τοῦ²⁵
ἀγνοοῦντα ποιεῖν· ὁ γὰρ μεθύων ἢ ὀργιζόμενος οὐ
δοκεῖ δι' ἄγνοιαν πράττειν ἀλλὰ διὰ τι τῶν
εἰρημένων, οὐκ εἰδὼς δέ, ἀλλ' ἀγνοῶν. ἀγνοεῖ
μὲν οὖν πᾶς ὁ μοχθηρὸς ἂν δεῖ πράττειν καὶ ὦν
ἀφεκτέον, καὶ διὰ τὴν τοιαύτην ἀμαρτίαν ἀδικοῖ
- 15 καὶ ὅλως κακοὶ γίνονται. τὸ δ' ἀκούσιον βούλεται 30

¹ δὴ L^b.² Richards.³ μηδὲν τι K^b: μηδὲν δὲ L^b, μηδὲν ΓM^b.^a See note on § 1 above.

- motives of all actions whatsoever. Also (2) to act under compulsion and involuntarily is painful, but actions aiming at something pleasant or noble are pleasant. And (3) it is absurd to blame external things, instead of blaming ourselves for falling an easy prey to their attractions ; or to take the credit of our noble deeds to ourselves, while putting the blame for our disgraceful ones upon the temptations
- 12 of pleasure. It appears therefore that an act is compulsory when its origin is from outside, the person compelled contributing nothing to it.
- 13 (b) An act done through ignorance is in every case not voluntary,^a but it is involuntary only when it causes the agent pain and regret afterwards : since a man who has acted through ignorance and feels no compunction at all for what he has done, cannot indeed be said to have acted voluntarily, as he was not aware of his action, yet cannot be said to have acted involuntarily, as he is not sorry for it. Acts done through ignorance therefore fall into two classes : if the agent regrets the act, we think that he has acted involuntarily ; if he does not regret it, to mark the distinction we may call him a ' non-voluntary ' agent—for as the case is
- 14 different it is better to give it a special name. Acting *through* ignorance however seems to be different from acting *in* ignorance ; for when a man is drunk or in a rage, his actions are not thought to be done through ignorance but owing to one or other of the conditions mentioned, though he does act without knowing, and *in* ignorance. Now it is true that all wicked men are ignorant of what they ought to do and refrain from doing, and that this error is the cause of injustice and of vice in general.

Acts done through ignorance (i.e. ignorance of the circumstances) are always non-voluntary, but are involuntary only when regretted.

ARISTOTLE

- λέγεσθαι οὐκ εἴ τις ἀγνοεῖ τὰ συμφέροντα.¹ οὐ γὰρ ἢ ἐν τῇ προαιρέσει ἄγνοια αἰτία τοῦ ἀκουσίου (ἀλλὰ τῆς μοχθηρίας), οὐδ' ἢ καθόλου (ψέγονται γὰρ διὰ γε ταύτην), ἀλλ' ἢ καθ' ἕκαστα, ἐν οἷς καὶ περὶ αἱ 11 ἢ πρᾶξις· ἐν τούτοις γὰρ καὶ ἔλεος καὶ συγγνώμη.
- 16 ὁ γὰρ τούτων τι ἀγνοῶν ἀκουσίως πράττει. ἴδως οὖν οὐ χεῖρον διορίσαι αὐτά, τίνα καὶ πόσα ἐστί, τίς τε δὴ καὶ τί καὶ περὶ τί ἢ ἐν τίνι πράττει, ἐνίοτε δὲ καὶ τίνι, οἷον ὄργάνῳ, καὶ ἔνεκα τίνος, 5 οἷον σωτηρίας, καὶ πῶς, οἷον ἡρέμα ἢ σφόδρα.
- 17 ἅπαντα μὲν οὖν ταῦτα οὐδεὶς ἂν ἀγνοήσκει μὴ μαινόμενος, δῆλον δ' ὡς οὐδὲ τὸν πράττοντα· πῶς γὰρ ἑαυτὸν γε; ὁ δὲ πράττει, ἀγνοήσκειν ἂν τις, οἷον λέγοντάς² φασιν ἐκπεσεῖν αὐτούς,³ ἢ οὐκ εἰδέναι ὅτι ἀπόρρητα ἦν, ὥσπερ Αἰσχύλος τὰ μυστικά, ἢ 10 δεῖξαι βουλόμενος ἀφεῖναι, ὡς ὁ τὸν καταπέλτην· οἰηθείη δ' ἂν τις καὶ τὸν υἱὸν πολέμιον εἶναι ὥσπερ ἢ Μερόπη, καὶ ἐσφαιρῶσθαι τὸ λελογχωμένον δόρυ, ἢ τὸν λίθον κίσσηριν εἶναι· καὶ ἐπὶ σωτηρία

¹ τὰ συμφέροντα K^b : τὸ σύμφερον.

² λέγοντας (ut videtur) Asp. : λέγοντες.

³ αὐτούς Ald. : αὐτοὺς

^a i.e., choice of Ends : see III. II. 1 note.

^b 'Things' seems to include persons, see example (3) below.

^c ἐν τίνι seems to bear a more limited sense than ἐν οἷς II. 1, 16, 18, 24, which covers the circumstances of all sorts.

^d Aeschylus was accused before the Areopagus of having divulged the Mysteries of Demeter in certain of his tragedies, but was acquitted. A phrase of his, 'It came to my mouth,' became proverbial (Plato, *Rep.* 563 c, etc.), and he may have used it on this occasion.

^e In a lost play of Euripides.

15 But the term 'involuntary' does not really apply to an action when the agent is ignorant of his true interests. For involuntary acts result not from ignorance displayed in moral choice^a (vice results from that sort of ignorance)—that is to say, they result not from general ignorance (because that is held to be blameworthy), but from particular ignorance, ignorance of the circumstances of the act and of the things^b affected by it; for in this case the act is pitied and forgiven, because he who acts in ignorance of any of these circumstances is an involuntary agent.

16 Perhaps then it will be as well to specify the nature and number of these circumstances. They are (1) the agent, (2) the act, (3) the thing^b that is affected by or is the sphere of^c the act; and sometimes also (4) the instrument, for instance, a tool with which the act is done, (5) the effect, for instance, saving a man's life, and (6) the manner, for instance, gently or violently.

17 Now no one, unless mad, could be ignorant of all these circumstances together; nor yet, obviously, of (1) the agent—for a man must know who he is himself. But a man may be ignorant of (2) what he is doing, as for instance when people say 'it slipped out while they were speaking,' or 'they were not aware that the matter was a secret,' as Aeschylus said of the Mysteries^d; or that 'they let it off when they only meant to show how it worked' as the prisoner pleaded in the catapult case. Again (3) a person might mistake his son for an enemy, as Merope does^e; or (4) mistake a sharp spear for one with a button on it, or a heavy stone for a pumice-stone; or (5) one might kill a

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- ποτίσας¹ ἀποκτείναι ἄν· καὶ δράξαι² βουλόμενος,
 18 ὥσπερ οἱ ἀκροχειριζόμενοι, πατάξειεν ἄν. περὶ ¹⁵
 πάντα δὴ ταῦτα τῆς ἀγνοίας οὔσης ἐν οἷς ἡ πρᾶξις,
 ὁ τούτων τι ἀγνοήσας ἄκων δοκεῖ πεπραχέναι, καὶ
 μάλιστα ἐν τοῖς κυριωτάτοις· κυριώτατα δ' εἶναι
 19 δοκεῖ, ἐν οἷς ἡ πρᾶξις,³ <ὁ>⁴ καὶ οὐ ἔνεκα. τοῦ δὴ
 κατὰ τὴν τοιαύτην ἀγνοίαν ἀκουσίου λεγομένου ²⁰
 ἔτι δεῖ τὴν πρᾶξιν λυπηρὰν εἶναι καὶ ἐν μεταμελείᾳ.
 20 ὄντος δ' ἀκουσίου τοῦ βία καὶ δι' ἀγνοίαν,
 τὸ ἐκούσιον δόξειεν ἄν εἶναι οὐ ἡ ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ
 21 εἰδότες τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα ἐν οἷς ἡ πρᾶξις. ἴσως γὰρ
 οὐ καλῶς λέγεται ἀκούσια εἶναι τὰ διὰ θυμὸν ἢ ²⁵
 22 ἐπιθυμίαν. πρῶτον μὲν γὰρ οὐδὲν ἔτι τῶν ἄλλων
 23 ζώων ἐκουσίως πράξει, οὐδ' οἱ παῖδες. εἴτα
 πότερον οὐδὲν ἐκουσίως πράττομεν τῶν δι'
 ἐπιθυμίαν καὶ θυμὸν, ἢ τὰ καλὰ μὲν ἐκουσίως τὰ
 δ' αἰσχροὶ ἀκουσίως; ἢ γελοῖον ἑνὸς γε αἰτίου
 24 ὄντος; ἄτοπον δὲ ἴσως ἀκούσια φάναι ὧν δεῖ ³⁰
 ὀρέγεσθαι· δεῖ δὲ καὶ ὀργίζεσθαι ἐπὶ τισι καὶ
 ἐπιθυμεῖν τινῶν, οἷον ὑγιείας καὶ μαθήσεως.
 25 δοκεῖ δὲ τὰ μὲν ἀκούσια λυπηρὰ εἶναι, τὰ δὲ κατ'
 26 ἐπιθυμίαν ἡδέα. ἔτι δὲ τί διαφέρει τῷ ἀκούσια

¹ ποτίσας Bonitz: παίσας (πίσας Bernays).

² δράξαι Ridgeway: δεῖξαι (θῖξαι codd. Morellii).

³ ἐν οἷς ἡ πρᾶξις secludenda? ed.

⁴ Richards.

* A style of wrestling in which the adversaries only gripped each other's hands without closing.

- man by giving him medicine with the intention of saving his life ; or (6) in loose wrestling^a hit him
 18 a blow when meaning only to grip his hand. Ignorance therefore being possible in respect of all these circumstances of the act, one who has acted in ignorance of any of them is held to have acted involuntarily, and especially so if ignorant of the most important of them ; and the most important of the circumstances seem to be the nature of the act itself and the effect it will produce.
- 19 Such then is the nature of the ignorance that justifies our speaking of an act as involuntary, given the further condition that the agent feels sorrow and regret for having committed it.
- 20 An involuntary action being one done under compulsion or through ignorance, a voluntary act would
 seem to be an act of which the origin lies in the agent, who knows the particular circumstances in
 21 which he is acting. For it is probably a mistake to say that acts caused by anger or by desire are
 22 involuntary. In the first place, (1) if we do so, we can no longer say that any of the lower animals
 23 act voluntarily, nor yet children. Then (2) are none of our actions that are caused by desire or anger voluntary, or are the noble ones voluntary and the base involuntary ? Surely this ~~is~~ an absurd distinction when one person is the author of both.
- 24 Yet perhaps it is strange to speak of feelings which it is right to aim at having as involuntary ; but it is right to feel anger at some things, and also to feel desire for some things, for instance health, knowledge.
- 25 Also (3) we think that involuntary actions are painful and actions that gratify desire pleasant. And
 26 again (4) what difference is there in respect of their

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acts.

εἶναι τὰ κατὰ λογισμὸν ἢ θυμὸν ἀμαρτηθέντα;
 27 φευκτὰ μὲν γὰρ ἄμφω, δοκεῖ δὲ οὐχ ἥττον ἀνθρω- 1111 b
 πικὰ εἶναι τὰ ἄλογα πάθη,¹ ὥστε καὶ αἱ² πράξεις
 τοῦ ἀνθρώπου <αἱ>³ ἀπὸ θυμοῦ καὶ ἐπιθυμίας.
 ἄτοπον δὴ τὸ τιθέναι ἀκούσια ταῦτα.

- ii Διωρισμένων δὲ τοῦ τε ἐκουσίου καὶ τοῦ
 ἀκουσίου, περὶ προαιρέσεως ἔπεται διελεῖν·⁵
 οἰκειότατον γὰρ εἶναι δοκεῖ τῇ ἀρετῇ, καὶ μᾶλλον
 2 τὰ ἥθη κρίνειν τῶν πράξεων. ἡ προαίρεσις δὴ
 ἐκούσιον μὲν φαίνεται, οὐ ταῦτόν δέ, ἀλλ' ἐπὶ
 πλεον τὸ ἐκούσιον· τοῦ μὲν γὰρ ἐκουσίου καὶ
 παῖδες καὶ τᾶλλα ζῶα κοινωνεῖ, προαιρέσεως δ'
 οὐ, καὶ τὰ ἐξαίφνης ἐκούσια μὲν λέγομεν, κατὰ 10
 3 προαίρεσιν δ' οὐ. οἱ δὲ λέγοντες αὐτὴν ἐπιθυμίαν
 ἢ θυμὸν ἢ βούλησιν ἢ τινα δόξαν οὐκ εἰκόασιν
 ὀρθῶς λέγειν. οὐ γὰρ κοινὸν ἡ προαίρεσις καὶ
 4 τῶν ἀλόγων, ἐπιθυμία δὲ καὶ θυμός. καὶ ὁ
 ἀκρατὴς ἐπιθυμῶν μὲν πράττει, προαιρούμενος δ'
 οὐ· ὁ ἐγκρατὴς δ' ἀνάπαλιν προαιρούμενος μὲν, 15
 5 ἐπιθυμῶν δ' οὐ. καὶ προαιρέσει μὲν ἐπιθυμία
 ἐναντιοῦται, ἐπιθυμία δ' ἐπιθυμία οὐ. καὶ ἡ μὲν

¹ πάθη om. pr. K^b.

² ὥστε καὶ αἱ K^b: αἱ δὲ vulg.

³ <ai> conj. Susemihl.

^a The writer here examines the operation of the Will, which is regarded as essentially an act of choosing between alternatives of conduct. The technical term employed, 'choice' or 'preference,' has appeared in the formal definition of virtue (II. vi. 15). In the present passage, cf. § 9, it is viewed as directed to means: at the moment of action we select from among the alternative acts possible

- involuntary character between wrong acts committed deliberately and wrong acts done in anger?
- 27 Both are to be avoided; and also we think that the irrational feelings are just as much a part of human nature as the reason, so that the actions done from anger or desire also belong to the human being who does them. It is therefore strange to class these actions as involuntary.
- ii Having defined voluntary and involuntary action, we next have to examine the nature of Choice.^a Choice or Purpose.
For this appears to be intimately connected with virtue, and to afford a surer test of character than do our actions.
- 2 Choice is manifestly a voluntary act. But the two terms are not synonymous, the latter being the wider. Children and the lower animals as well as men are capable of voluntary action, but not of choice. Also sudden acts may be termed voluntary, but they cannot be said to be done by choice.
- 3 Some identify Choice with (1) Desire, or (2) Passion, or (3) Wish, or (4) some form of Opinion. These views however appear to be mistaken.
- (1) The irrational animals do not exercise choice, but they do feel desire, and also passion. Also a man of defective self-restraint acts from desire but not from choice, and on the contrary a self-restrained
- 4 man acts from choice and not from desire. Again,
- 5 desire can run counter to choice, but not desire to
- (or expressing it more loosely, among the various things here and now obtainable by our action) the one which we think will conduce to the end we wish. Elsewhere however (III. i. 15 and VI. xii. 8) it is used of the selection of ends, and it is almost equivalent to 'purpose'; while at VI. xiii. 8 it includes both ends and means. The writer returns to the subject in VI. ii,

- ἐπιθυμία ἡδέος καὶ ἐπιλύπου, ἣ προαίρεσις δ'
 6 οὔτε λυπηροῦ οὔθ' ἡδέος. θυμὸς δ' ἔτι ἥττον·
 ἥκιστα γὰρ τὰ διὰ θυμὸν κατὰ προαίρεσιν εἶναι
 7 δοκεῖ. ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ βούλησις γε, καίπερ 20
 σύνεγγυς φαινόμενον· προαίρεσις μὲν γὰρ οὐκ
 ἔστι τῶν ἀδυνάτων, καὶ εἴ τις φαίη προαιρεῖσθαι,
 δοκοίη ἂν ἡλίθιος εἶναι· βούλησις δ' ἔστι¹ τῶν
 8 ἀδυνάτων, οἷον ἀθανασίας. καὶ ἡ μὲν βούλησις
 ἔστι καὶ περὶ τὰ μηδαμῶς δι' αὐτοῦ πραχθέντα
 ἂν, οἷον ὑποκριτὴν τινα νικᾶν ἢ ἀθλητὴν· προ- 25
 αἰρεῖται δὲ τὰ τοιαῦτα οὐδεῖς, ἀλλ' ὅσα οὔεται
 9 γενέσθαι ἂν δι' αὐτοῦ. ἔτι δ' ἡ μὲν βούλησις τοῦ
 τέλους ἔστι μᾶλλον, ἣ δὲ προαίρεσις τῶν πρὸς τὸ
 τέλος, οἷον ὑγιαίνειν βουλόμεθα, προαιρούμεθα δὲ
 δι' ὧν ὑγιανούμεν, καὶ εὐδαιμονεῖν βουλόμεθα μὲν
 καὶ φασκόμεν, προαιρούμεθα δὲ λέγειν οὐχ ἀρμόζει·
 ὅλως γὰρ ἔοικεν ἡ προαίρεσις περὶ τὰ ἐφ' ἡμῶν 30
 10 εἶναι. οὐδὲ δὴ δόξα ἂν εἴη· ἡ μὲν γὰρ δόξα δοκεῖ
 περὶ πάντα εἶναι, καὶ οὐδὲν ἥττον περὶ τὰ ἀτρία
 καὶ τὰ ἀδύνατα ἢ τὰ ἐφ' ἡμῶν· καὶ τῷ ψευδεῖ
 καὶ ἀληθεῖ διαιρεῖται, οὐ τῷ κακῷ καὶ ἀγαθῷ, ἣ
 11 προαίρεσις δὲ τούτοις μᾶλλον. ὅλως μὲν οὖν
 δόξῃ ταῦτόν ἴσως οὐδὲ λέγει οὐδεῖς. ἀλλ' οὐδέ τι· 1112 a

¹ ἔστι καὶ ~~Α~~ ~~π~~.

^a i.e., you cannot feel two contradictory desires at once (though you can of course desire two incompatible things: you may want to eat your cake and have it; but you cannot strictly speaking at the same time both desire to eat the cake and desire not to eat it). But you can desire to do a thing and choose not to do it.

^b But as good or bad.

^c Greek dramas were produced in competitions (and it is noteworthy that in the Old Comedy at Athens the play itself dramatized a contest or debate).

desire.^a And desire considers an object as pleasant or painful, choice does not.^b

6 (2) Still less is choice the same as passion. Acts done from passion seem very far from being done of deliberate choice.

7 (3) Again, choice is certainly not a wish, though they appear closely akin. Choice cannot have for its object impossibilities: if a man were to say he chose something impossible he would be thought a fool; but we can wish for things that are impossible,
8 for instance immortality. Also we may wish for what cannot be secured by our own agency, for instance, that a particular actor^c or athlete may win; but no one chooses what does not rest with himself, but only what he thinks can be attained by
9 his own act. Again, we wish rather for ends than for means, but choose the means to our end; for example, we wish to be healthy, but choose things to make us healthy; we wish to be happy, and that is the word we use in this connexion, but it would not be correct to say that we choose to be happy; since, speaking generally, choice seems to be concerned with things within our own control.

10 (4) Nor yet again can it be opinion. It seems that anything may be matter of opinion—we form opinions about what is eternal,^d or impossible, just as much as about what is within our power. Also we distinguish opinion by its truth or falsehood, not by its being good or bad, but choice is distinguished
11 rather as being good or bad. Probably therefore nobody actually identifies choice with opinion in general. But neither is it the same as some parti-

^a Cf. c. iii. 3 and note.

- τῷ γὰρ προαιρεῖσθαι τὰγαθὰ ἢ τὰ κακὰ ποιοί
 12 τινές ἐσμεν, τῷ δὲ δοξάζειν οὐ. καὶ προαιρούμεθα
 μὲν λαβεῖν ἢ φυγεῖν [ἢ]¹ τι τῶν τοιούτων, δοξά-
 ζομεν δὲ τί ἐστὶν ἢ τίνι συμφέρει ἢ πῶς². λαβεῖν ⁵
 13 δ' ἢ φυγεῖν οὐ πάνυ δοξάζομεν. καὶ ἡ μὲν προ-
 αῖρεσις ἐπαινέεται τῷ εἶναι οὐ δεῖ μᾶλλον, ἢ τῷ
 ὀρθῶς, ἡ δὲ δόξα τῷ [ὥς]³ ἀληθῶς. καὶ προ-
 αιρούμεθα μὲν ἅ μάλιστα ἴσμεν ἀγαθὰ ὄντα,
 14 δοξάζομεν δὲ ἅ οὐ πάνυ ἴσμεν. δοκοῦσί τε οὐχ
 οἱ αὐτοὶ προαιρεῖσθαι τε ἄριστα καὶ δοξάζειν,
 ἀλλ' ἔνιοι δοξάζειν μὲν ἄμεινον, διὰ κακίαν δ' ¹⁰
 15 αἰρεῖσθαι οὐχ ἅ δεῖ. εἰ δὲ προγίνεται δόξα τῆς
 προαιρέσεως ἢ παρακολουθεῖ, οὐδὲν διαφέρει·
 οὐ τοῦτο γὰρ σκοποῦμεν, ἀλλ' εἰ ταυτὸν ἐστὶ
 16 δόξη τινί. τί οὖν ἢ ποῖόν τί ἐστὶν, ἐπειδὴ τῶν
 εἰρημένων οὐθέν; ἐκούσιον μὲν δὴ φαίνεται, τὸ
 17 δ' ἐκούσιον οὐ πᾶν προαιρετόν. ἀλλ' ἄρα γε τὸ ¹⁵
 προβεβουλευμένον; ἡ γὰρ προαῖρεσις μετὰ λόγου
 καὶ διανοίας. ὑποσημαίνειν δ' ἔοικε καὶ τοῦνομα
 ὥς ὃν πρὸ ἐτέρων αἰρετόν.
- iii Βουλευόνται δὲ πότερα περὶ πάντων καὶ πᾶν
 βουλευτόν ἐστιν, ἢ περὶ ἐνίων οὐκ ἔστι βουλή;
 2 λεκτέον δ' ἴσως βουλευτόν οὐχ ὑπὲρ οὗ βουλευσάιτ' ²⁰

¹ [ἢ] om. K^b.² πῶς <ἔσται> Ramsauer.³ [ὥς] om. L^b.^a i.e., an opinion or belief that so-and-so is good, and is within our power to obtain.^b Perhaps to be emended 'how it is to be achieved.'

- cular opinion.^a For it is our choice of good or evil that determines our character, not our opinion about good or evil. And we choose to take or avoid some good or evil thing, but we opine what a thing is, or for whom it is advantageous, or how it is so^b: we do not exactly form an opinion to take or avoid a thing. Also we praise a choice rather for choosing the right thing, that is, for being correct, but an opinion for being true. And we choose only things that we absolutely know to be good, we opine things we do not quite certainly know to be true. Nor do the same persons appear to excel both at choosing and at forming opinions: some people seem to hold excellent opinions, but yet to choose wrongly from wickedness. That choice is preceded or accompanied by the formation of an opinion is immaterial, for that is not the point we are considering, but whether choice is the same thing as some form of opinion.
- 16 What then are the genus and differentia of Choice, inasmuch as it is not any of the things above mentioned? It manifestly belongs to the genus voluntary action; but not every voluntary act is chosen.
- 17 Perhaps we may define it as voluntary action preceded by deliberation, since choice involves reasoning and some process of thought. Indeed previous deliberation seems to be implied by the very term *προαιρετόν*, which denotes something *chosen before* other things.
- iii As for Deliberation, do people deliberate about everything—are all things possible objects of deliberation—or are there some things about which deliberation is impossible? The term 'object of deliberation' presumably must not be taken to

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ἄν τις ἡλίθιος ἢ μαινόμενος, ἀλλ' ὑπὲρ ὧν ὁ νοῦν
 3 ἔχων. περὶ δὴ¹ τῶν αἰδίων οὐδεὶς βουλευέται,
 οἷον περὶ τοῦ κόσμου, ἢ τῆς διαμέτρου καὶ τῆς
 4 πλευρᾶς ὅτι ἀσύμμετροι. ἀλλ' οὐδὲ περὶ τῶν
 ἐν κινήσει, αἰεὶ δὲ κατὰ ταῦτά γινομένων, εἴτ'
 ἐξ ἀνάγκης εἴτε καὶ φύσει ἢ διὰ τινα αἰτίαν²⁵
 5 ἄλλην, οἷον τροπῶν καὶ ἀνατολῶν. οὐδὲ περὶ
 τῶν ἄλλοτε ἄλλως, οἷον αὐχμῶν καὶ ὄμβρων. οὐδὲ
 περὶ τῶν ἀπὸ τύχης, οἷον θησαυροῦ εὐρέσεως.
 6 [ἀλλ' οὐδὲ περὶ τῶν ἀνθρωπινῶν ἀπάντων, οἷον
 πῶς ἂν Σκύθαι ἄριστα πολιτεύοντο οὐδεὶς Λα-
 κεδαιμονίων βουλευέται.]² οὐ γὰρ γένοιτ' ἂν³⁰
 7 τούτων οὐθὲν δι' ἡμῶν. βουλευόμεθα δὲ περὶ
 τῶν ἐφ' ἡμῖν καὶ πρακτῶν (ταῦτα δὲ καὶ ἔστι
 λοιπά· αἰτίαι γὰρ δοκοῦσιν εἶναι φύσις καὶ ἀνάγκη
 καὶ τύχη, ἔτι δὲ νοῦς καὶ πᾶν τὸ δι'³ ἀνθρώπου).^{*}
 τῶν δ' ἀνθρώπων ἕκαστοι βουλεύονται περὶ τῶν
 8 δι' αὐτῶν πρακτῶν. καὶ περὶ μὲν τὰς ἀκριβεῖς¹¹¹²
 καὶ αὐτάρκεις τῶν ἐπιστημῶν οὐκ ἔστι βουλή,
 οἷον περὶ γραμμάτων (οὐ γὰρ διστάζομεν πῶς

¹ δὴ Bonitz: δέ.

² ἀλλ' . . . βουλευέται infra post ἀνθρώπου transponenda ed.

³ δι' secludendum? Richards.

^a The term includes the notion of immutability.

^b Here and in § 7 'necessity' denotes natural law in the inanimate world, while 'nature' or 'growth' means natural law as governing animate creatures. Aristotle held that these agencies, and with them the operation of human intelligence and art, beside their designed results, produced by their interplay certain by-products in the shape of undesigned and irregular occurrences, which are referred to in the next section. These in the natural world he spoke of as due to τὸ αὐτόματον, or 'spontaneous'; when due

include things about which a fool or a madman might deliberate, but to mean what a sensible person would deliberate about.

- 3 Well then, nobody deliberates about things eternal,^a such as the order of the universe, or the incommensurability of the diagonal and the side
4 of a square. Nor yet about things that change but follow a regular process, whether from necessity or by nature^b or through some other cause: such phenomena for instance as the solstices and the
5 sunrise. Nor about irregular occurrences, such as droughts and rains. Nor about the results of chance,
6 such as finding a hidden treasure. The reason^c why we do not deliberate about these things is that none of them can be effected by our agency.
- 7 We deliberate about things that are in our control and are attainable by action (which are in fact the only things that still remain to be considered; for Nature, Necessity, and Chance, with the addition of Intelligence and human agency generally, exhaust the generally accepted list of causes). But we do not deliberate about all human affairs without exception either: for example, no Lacedaemonian deliberates about the best form of government^d for Scythia; but any particular group of men deliberates about
8 the things attainable by its own actions. Also there is no room for deliberation about matters fully ascertained and completely formulated as sciences; such for instance as orthography, for we have no uncertainty as to how a word ought to be spelt. to the activity of man he ascribed them to fortune or chance. In § 7 chance is made to include 'the spontaneous.'

^c In the mss. the words 'The reason why . . . list of causes' come after 'But we do not deliberate . . . Scythia.'

^d Or, 'the best line of policy.'

- γραπτέον). ἀλλ' ὅσα γίνεται δι' ἡμῶν, μὴ ὡσαύτως
 δ' αἰεί, περὶ τούτων βουλευόμεθα, οἷον περὶ τῶν
 κατὰ ἰατρικὴν καὶ χρηματιστικὴν, καὶ περὶ 5
 κυβερνητικὴν μᾶλλον ἢ γυμναστικὴν, ὅσῳ ἥττον
 διηκρίβωται, καὶ ἔτι περὶ τῶν λοιπῶν ὁμοίως.
 9 μᾶλλον δὲ καὶ περὶ τὰς τέχνας¹ ἢ τὰς ἐπιστήμας.
 10 μᾶλλον γὰρ περὶ αὐτὰς διστάζομεν. τὸ βουλευέ-
 σθαι δὴ² ἐν τοῖς ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ, ἀδήλοις δὲ
 πῶς ἀποβήσεται, καὶ ἐν οἷς³ ἀδιόριστον, συμ- 10
 βούλους δὲ παραλαμβάνομεν εἰς τὰ μεγάλα,
 ἀπιστοῦντες ἡμῖν αὐτοῖς ὡς οὐχ ἱκανοῖς διαγνῶναι.
 11 —βουλευόμεθα δ' οὐ περὶ τῶν τελῶν, ἀλλὰ περὶ
 τῶν πρὸς τὰ τέλη. οὔτε γὰρ ἰατρὸς βουλεύεται
 εἰ ὑγιάσει, οὔτε ῥήτωρ εἰ πείσει, οὔτε πολιτικὸς
 εἰ εὐνομίαν ποιήσει, οὐδὲ τῶν λοιπῶν οὐδεὶς περὶ 15
 τοῦ τέλους. ἀλλὰ θέμενοι τέλος τι, πῶς καὶ διὰ
 τίνων⁴ ἔσται σκοποῦσι, καὶ διὰ πλειόνων μὲν
 φαινομένου γίνεσθαι διὰ τίνος ῥᾶστα καὶ κάλλιστα
 ἐπισκοποῦσι, δι' ἐνὸς δ' ἐπιτελουμένου πῶς διὰ
 τούτου ἔσται κακῆννο διὰ τίνος, ἕως ἂν ἔλθωσιν
 ἐπὶ τὸ πρῶτον αἴτιον, ὃ ἐν τῇ εὐρέσει ἔσχατόν
 ἐστίν (ὃ γὰρ βουλευόμενος ἔοικε ζητεῖν καὶ 20

¹ τέχνας : δόξας altera lectio ap. Asp.

² δὴ Asp. : δέ.

³ ἐν οἷς <ἢ δεῖ> ? Stewart.

⁴ τίνος L^b.

^a A less well attested reading gives 'more about our opinions,' and Aristotle does not usually distinguish sharply between the arts and crafts and the practical sciences (the theoretic sciences cannot here be meant, see §§ 3, 4).

^b The text is probably corrupt, and perhaps should be altered to run 'and in which the right means to take are not definitely determined.'

- We deliberate about things in which our agency operates, but does not always produce uniform results ; for instance about questions of medicine and of business ; and we deliberate about navigation more than about athletic training, because it has been less completely reduced to a science ; and
- 9 similarly with other pursuits also. And we deliberate more about the arts^a than about the sciences, because we are more uncertain about them.
- 10 Deliberation then is employed in matters which, though subject to rules that generally hold good, are uncertain in their issue ; or where the issue is indeterminate,^b and where, when the matter is important, we take others into our deliberations, distrusting our own capacity to decide.
- 11 And we deliberate not about ends, but about means. A doctor does not deliberate whether he is to cure his patient, nor an orator whether he is to convince his audience, nor a statesman whether he is to secure good government, nor does anyone else debate about the end of his profession or calling ; they take some end for granted, and consider how and by what means it can be achieved. If they find that there are several means of achieving it, they proceed to consider which of these will attain it most easily and best. If there is only one means by which it can be accomplished, they ask how it is to be accomplished by that means, and by what means that means can itself be achieved, until they reach the first link in the chain of causes, which is the last in the order of discovery. (For when deliberating one seems in the procedure described to be pursuing an investigation or analysis

ARISTOTLE

- ἀναλύειν τὸν εἰρημένον τρόπον ὥσπερ διάγραμμα—
 12 φαίνεται δ' ἡ μὲν ζήτησις οὐ πᾶσα εἶναι βού-
 λευσις, οἷον αἱ μαθηματικάί, ἡ δὲ βούλευσις πᾶσα
 ζήτησις—καὶ τὸ ἔσχατον ἐν τῇ ἀναλύσει πρῶτον
 13 εἶναι ἐν τῇ γενέσει). καὶ μὲν ἀδυνάτω ἐντύχωνται, ²⁵
 ἀφίστανται, οἷον εἰ χρημάτων δεῖ, ταῦτα δὲ μὴ
 οἷόν τε πορισθῆναι. ἐὰν δὲ δυνατόν φαίνηται, ἐγ-
 χειροῦσι πράττειν. δυνατὰ δὲ ἃ δι' ἡμῶν γένοιτ'
 ἂν· τὰ γὰρ διὰ τῶν φίλων δι' ἡμῶν πως ἐστίν·
 14 ἡ γὰρ ἀρχὴ ἐν ἡμῖν. ζητεῖται δ' ὅτε μὲν τὰ
 ὄργανα, ὅτε δ' ἡ χρεία αὐτῶν· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐν ³⁰
 τοῖς λοιποῖς ὅτε μὲν δι' οὗ, ὅτε δὲ πῶς δὴ διὰ
 15 τινος.¹ ἔοικε δὴ, καθάπερ εἴρηται, ἀνθρώπος
 εἶναι ἀρχὴ τῶν πράξεων, ἡ δὲ βουλὴ περὶ τῶν
 16 αὐτῶ πρακτῶν, αἱ δὲ πράξεις ἄλλων ἕνεκα· οὐκ
 ἂν οὖν² εἴη βουλευτὸν τὸ τέλος ἀλλὰ τὰ πρὸς τὰ
 τέλη. οὐδὲ δὴ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα, οἷον εἰ ἄρτος ^{1118 a}
 τοῦτο ἢ πέπεπται ὥς δεῖ· αἰσθήσεως γὰρ ταῦτα.
 17 εἰ δὲ αἰεὶ βουλευσεται, εἰς ἄπειρον ἥξει.—βουλευτὸν
 δὲ καὶ προαιρετὸν τὸ αὐτό, πλὴν ἀφωρισμένον

¹ δὴ διὰ τινος Muenscher: ἡ διὰ τίνος (sccl. Rasso).
² οὐ γὰρ ἂν K^b, οὐκ ἄρ' ἂν Susemihl.

^a The reference is to the analytical method of solving a problem: the figure required to be drawn is assumed to have been drawn, and then we analyse it and ask what conditions it implies, until we come down to something that we know how to draw already.

^b This clause seems implied by the context.

- that resembles the analysis of a figure in geometry ^a—
- 12 indeed it appears that though not all investigation is deliberation, for example, mathematical investigation is not, yet all deliberation is investigation—and the last step in the analysis seems to be the
- 13 first step in the execution of the design.) Then, if they have come up against an impossibility, they abandon the project—for instance, if it requires money and money cannot be procured; but if on the other hand it proves to be something possible, they begin to act. By possible, I mean able to be performed by our agency—things we do through the agency of our friends counting in a sense as done by ourselves, since the origin of their action is in us.
- 14 (In practising an art ^b) the question is at one moment what tools to use, and at another how to use them; and similarly in other spheres, we have to consider sometimes what means to employ, and sometimes how exactly given means are to be employed.
- 15 It appears therefore, as has been said, that a man is the origin of his actions, and that the province of deliberation is to discover actions within one's own power to perform; and all our actions aim at
- 16 ends other than themselves. It follows that we do not deliberate about ends, but about means. Nor yet do we deliberate about particular facts, for instance, Is this object a loaf? or, Is this loaf properly baked? for these are matters of direct perception. Deliberation must stop at the particular fact, or it will go on *ad infinitum*.
- 17 The object of deliberation and the object of choice are the same, except that when a thing is chosen

ἤδη τὸ προαιρετόν· τὸ γὰρ ἐκ τῆς βουλῆς προκριθὲν
 προαιρετόν ἐστιν, παύεται γὰρ ἕκαστος ζητῶν 5
 πῶς πράξει ὅταν εἰς αὐτὸν ἀνάγαγῃ τὴν ἀρχήν,
 καὶ αὐτοῦ εἰς τὸ ἡγούμενον· τοῦτο γὰρ τὸ προ-
 18 αἰρούμενον. δῆλον δὲ τοῦτο καὶ ἐκ τῶν ἀρχαίων
 πολιτειῶν, ἃς Ὅμηρος ἐμιμείτο· οἱ γὰρ βασι-
 19 λεῖς αἱ προέβαιοντο ἀνῆγγελλον τῷ δήμῳ. ὄντος
 δὴ¹ τοῦ προαιρετοῦ βουλευτοῦ ὀρεκτοῦ τῶν ἐφ'² 10
 ἡμῶν, καὶ ἡ προαίρεσις ἂν εἴη βουλευτική ὀρεξις
 τῶν ἐφ' ἡμῶν· ἐκ τοῦ βουλευσασθαι γὰρ κρίναντες
 20 ὀρεγόμεθα κατὰ τὴν βούλευσιν.³ ἡ μὲν οὖν προ-
 αἵρεσις τύπῳ εἰρήσθω, καὶ περὶ ποῖά ἐστι καὶ ὅτι
 τῶν πρὸς τὰ τέλη.

iv Ἡ δὲ βούλησις ὅτι μὲν τοῦ τέλους ἐστίν, εἴ- 15
 ρηται, δοκεῖ δὲ τοῖς μὲν τἀγαθοῦ³ εἶναι, τοῖς δὲ τοῦ
 2 φαινομένου ἀγαθοῦ. συμβαίνει δὲ τοῖς μὲν [τὸ]⁴
 βουλευτὸν τἀγαθὸν λέγουσι μὴ εἶναι βουλευτὸν ὃ
 βούλεται ὃ μὴ ὀρθῶς αἰρούμενος (εἰ γὰρ ἔσται
 βουλευτόν, καὶ ἀγαθόν· ἦν δ', εἰ οὕτως ἔτυχε,
 3 κακόν), τοῖς δ' αὖ τὸ φαινόμενον ἀγαθὸν βου- 20
 λητόν⁵ λέγουσι μὴ εἶναι φύσει βουλευτόν, ἀλλ'
 ἐκάστω τὸ δοκοῦν· ἄλλο δ' ἄλλω φαίνεται, καί,
 4 εἰ οὕτως ἔτυχε, τάναντία. εἰ δὲ δὴ ταῦτα μὴ

¹ δὴ (vel δὲ δὴ) Sussemihl: δὲ.

² βούλησιν M^b (et v.l. ap. Asp.). ³ τἀγαθοῦ Γ Asp.: ἀγαθοῦ.

⁴ [τὸ] om. Asp. ⁵ τὸ βουλευτόν H^aN^b.

^a i.e., the intellect or reason, which chooses a line of action for the individual, as the Homeric monarch chose a policy for his kingdom.

^b Cf. c. ii. 9.

^c The inherent ambiguity of the Greek verbal adjective form causes some confusion in this chapter between what is and what ought to be-wished for, the desired and the desirable.

- it has already been determined, since it is the thing already selected as the result of our deliberation that is chosen. For a man stops enquiring how he shall act as soon as he has carried back the origin of action to himself, and to the dominant part ^a of himself, for it is this part that chooses. This may be illustrated by the ancient constitutions represented in Homer: the kings used to proclaim to the people the measures they had chosen to adopt.
- 19 As then the object of choice is something within our power which after deliberation we desire, Choice will be a deliberate desire of things in our power; for we first deliberate, then select, and finally fix our desire according to the result of our deliberation. Final definition of Choice.
- 20 Let this serve as a description in outline of Choice, and of the nature of its objects, and the fact that it deals with means and not ends.
- iv Wishes, on the contrary, as was said above,^b are for ends. But while some hold that what is wished for ^c is the good, others think it is what appears to be good. Those however who say that what is wished for is the really good, are faced by the conclusion, that what a man who chooses his end wrongly wishes for is not really wished for at all; since if it is to be wished for, it must on their showing be good, whereas in the case assumed it may so happen that the man wishes for something bad.
- 3 And those on the other hand who say that what appears good is wished for, are forced to admit that there is no such thing as that which is by nature wished for, but that what each man thinks to be good is wished for in his case; yet different, and it may be opposite, things appear good to different people. Wish.

ARISTOTLE

ἀρέσκει, ἄρα φατέον ἀπλῶς μὲν καὶ κατ' ἀλή-
 θειαν βουλευτὸν εἶναι τὰγαθόν, ἐκάστω δὲ τὸ
 φαινόμενον· τῷ μὲν οὖν σπουδαίῳ τὸ κατ' ἀλή- 25
 θειαν εἶναι, τῷ δὲ φαύλῳ τὸ τυχόν (ὥσπερ καὶ
 ἐπὶ τῶν σωμάτων τοῖς μὲν εὖ διακειμένοις ὑγιεινὰ
 ἐστὶ τὰ κατ' ἀλήθειαν τοιαῦτα ὄντα, τοῖς δ'
 ἐπινόσοις ἕτερα, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ πικρὰ καὶ γλυκέα
 καὶ θερμὰ καὶ βαρέα καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἕκαστα); ὁ
 σπουδαῖος γὰρ ἕκαστα κρίνει ὀρθῶς, καὶ ἐν 30
 5 ἐκάστοις τὰληθὲς αὐτῷ φαίνεται· καθ' ἐκάστην
 γὰρ ἕξιν ἰδιά ἐστὶ καλὰ καὶ ἡδέα, καὶ διαφέρει
 πλείστον ἴσως ὁ σπουδαῖος τῷ τὰληθὲς ἐν
 ἐκάστοις ὄρᾶν, ὥσπερ κανὼν καὶ μέτρον αὐτῶν
 ὢν. τοῖς πολλοῖς δὲ ἡ ἀπάτη διὰ τὴν ἡδονὴν
 ἔοικε γίνεσθαι· οὐ γὰρ οὕσα ἀγαθὸν φαίνεται· 1118 b
 6 αἰροῦνται οὖν τὸ ἡδὺ ὡς ἀγαθόν, τὴν δὲ λύπην
 ὡς κακὸν φεύγουσιν.

ν Ὅντος δὴ βουλευτοῦ μὲν τοῦ τέλους, βουλευτῶν δὲ
 καὶ προαιρετῶν τῶν πρὸς τὸ τέλος, αἱ περὶ ταῦτα
 πράξεις κατὰ προαίρεσιν ἂν εἶεν καὶ ἐκούσιοι· 5
 2 αἱ δὲ τῶν ἀρετῶν ἐνέργειαι περὶ ταῦτα· ἐφ' ἡμῖν
 δὴ¹, καὶ ἡ ἀρετή. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡ κακία· ἐν οἷς
 γὰρ ἐφ' ἡμῖν τὸ πράττειν, καὶ τὸ μὴ πράττειν,
 καὶ ἐν οἷς τὸ μὴ, καὶ τὸ ναί· ὥστ' εἰ τὸ πράττειν
 καλὸν ὃν ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἐστί, καὶ τὸ μὴ πράττειν ἐφ'

¹ δὴ Hel.: δὲ.

^a i.e., things really bitter, etc. seem so to a healthy man, but not in some cases to an invalid.

^b i.e., in each department of character and conduct.

4 As therefore neither of these views is satisfactory, perhaps we should say that what is wished for in the true and unqualified sense is the good, but that what appears good to each person is wished for by him; and accordingly that the good man wishes for what is truly wished for, the bad man for anything as it may happen (just as in the case of our bodies, a man of sound constitution finds really healthy food best for his health, but some other diet may be healthy for one who is delicate; and so with things bitter ^a and sweet, hot, heavy, etc.). For the good man judges everything correctly; what things truly are, that they seem to him to be, in
5 every department ^b—for the noble and the pleasant have a special form corresponding to each of the faculties of our nature, and perhaps what chiefly distinguishes the good man is that he sees the truth in each kind, being himself as it were the standard and measure of the noble and pleasant. It appears to be pleasure that misleads the mass of mankind; for it seems to them to be a good, though it is not,
6 so they choose what is pleasant as good and shun pain as evil.

7 If then whereas we wish for our end, the means to our end are matters of deliberation and choice, it follows that actions dealing with these means are done by choice, and voluntary. But the activities in which the virtues are exercised deal with

Virtue is voluntary, and so is Vice;

2 means. Therefore virtue also depends on ourselves.

And so also does vice. For where we are free to act we are also free to refrain from acting, and where we are able to say No we are also able to say Yes; if therefore we are responsible for doing a thing when to do it is right, we are also responsible

since wrong action as well as right action depends on ourselves.

ARISTOTLE

ἡμῖν ἔσται αἰσχρὸν ὄν, καὶ εἰ τὸ μὴ πράττειν ¹⁰
καλὸν ὄν ἐφ' ἡμῖν, καὶ τὸ πράττειν αἰσχρὸν ὄν
³ ἐφ' ἡμῖν. εἰ δ' ἐφ' ἡμῖν τὰ καλὰ πράττειν καὶ
τὰ αἰσχρά, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὸ μὴ πράττειν, τοῦτο
δ' ἦν τὸ ἀγαθοῖς καὶ κακοῖς εἶναι, ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἄρα
⁴ τὸ ἐπιεικέσι καὶ φαύλοις εἶναι. τὸ δὲ λέγειν ὥς

οὐδεὶς ἐκὼν πονηρὸς οὐδ' ἄκων μάκαρ¹ 15

ἔοικε τὸ μὲν ψευδεῖ τὸ δ' ἀληθεῖ· μακάριος μὲν
⁵ γὰρ οὐδεὶς ἄκων, ἡ δὲ μοχθηρία ἐκούσιον· ἡ τοῖς
γε νῦν εἰρημένοις ἀμφισβητητέον, καὶ τὸν ἀνθρω-
πον οὐ φατέον ἀρχὴν εἶναι οὐδὲ γεννητὴν τῶν
⁶ πράξεων ὥσπερ καὶ τέκνων. εἰ δὲ ταῦτα φαίνεται,
καὶ μὴ ἔχομεν εἰς ἄλλας ἀρχὰς ἀναγαγεῖν παρὰ ²⁰
τὰς ἐν² ἡμῖν, ὧν καὶ αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἐν ἡμῖν, καὶ αὐτὰ
⁷ ἐφ' ἡμῖν καὶ ἐκούσια. τούτοις δ' ἔοικε μαρτυ-
ρεῖσθαι καὶ ἰδίᾳ ὑφ' ἐκάστων καὶ ὑπ' αὐτῶν τῶν
νομοθετῶν· κολάζουσι γὰρ καὶ τιμωροῦνται τοὺς
δρῶντας μοχθηρά, ὅσοι μὴ βία ἢ δι' ἀγνοίαν ἥς
μὴ αὐτοὶ αἴτιοι, τοὺς δὲ τὰ καλὰ πράττοντας ²⁵
τιμῶσιν, ὥς τοὺς μὲν προτρέφοντες, τοὺς δὲ κω-
λύσοντες· καίτοι ὅσα μήτ' ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἐστὶ μήθ'
ἐκούσια, οὐδεὶς προτρέπεται πράττειν, ὥς οὐδὲν
πρὸ ἔργου, ὃν τὸ πεισθῆναι μὴ θερμαίνεσθαι ἢ
ἀλγεῖν ἢ πεινῆν ἢ ἄλλ' ὅτιοῦν τῶν τοιούτων·
⁸ οὐθὲν γὰρ ἡττον πεισόμεθα αὐτά. καὶ γὰρ ἐπ' ³⁰

¹ μάκαρ Victorius : μακάριος.

² ἐφ' Lb.

^a Possibly a verse of Solon. Doubtless πονηρός, translated 'vile' to suit the context here, in the original meant 'wretched.'

^b c. iii. 15.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, III. v. 2-7

for not doing it when not to do it is wrong, and if we are responsible for rightly not doing a thing,
 3 we are also responsible for wrongly doing it. But if it is in our power to do and to refrain from doing right and wrong, and if, as we saw, doing right or wrong is being good or bad, it consequently depends on us whether we are virtuous or vicious.
 4 To say that

None would be vile, and none would not be blest^a

seems to be half false, though half true : it is true that no one is unwilling to be blessed, but not true
 5 that wickedness is involuntary; or else we must contradict what we just now^b asserted, and say that man is not the originator and begetter of
 6 his actions as he is of his children. But if it is manifest that a man is the author of his own actions, and if we are unable to trace our conduct back to any other origins than those within ourselves, then actions of which the origins are within us, themselves depend upon us, and are voluntary.

7 This conclusion seems to be attested both by men's behaviour in private life and by the practice of lawgivers; for they punish and exact redress from those who do evil (except when it is done under compulsion, or through ignorance for^c which the agent himself is not responsible), and honour those who do noble deeds, in order to encourage the one sort and to repress the other; but nobody tries to encourage us to do things that do not depend upon ourselves and are not voluntary, since it is no good our being persuaded not to feel heat or pain or hunger or the like, because we shall feel them all the same.

This is assumed by the system of punishment for offences:

- αὐτῷ τῷ ἀγνοεῖν κολάζουσιν, ἐὰν αἷτιος εἶναι
δοκῇ τῆς ἀγνοίας· οἷον τοῖς μεθύουσι διπλᾶ τὰ
ἐπιτίμια, ἢ γὰρ ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ, κύριος γὰρ τοῦ
μὴ μεθυσθῆναι, τοῦτο δ' αἷτιον τῆς ἀγνοίας. καὶ
τοὺς ἀγνοοῦντάς τι τῶν ἐν τοῖς νόμοις, ἃ δεῖ
ἐπίστασθαι καὶ μὴ χαλεπά ἐστι, κολάζουσιν. ^{1114 a}
- 9 ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις, ὅσα δι' ἀμέλειαν
ἀγνοεῖν δοκοῦσιν, ὡς ἐπ' αὐτοῖς ὅν τὸ μὴ ἀγνοεῖν·
- 10 τοῦ γὰρ ἐπιμεληθῆναι κύριοι. ἀλλ' ἴσως τοιοῦτός
ἐστὶν ὥστε μὴ ἐπιμεληθῆναι. ἀλλὰ τοῦ τοιούτους¹
γενέσθαι αὐτοὶ αἷτιοι, ζῶντες ἀνειμένως, καὶ τοῦ ⁵
ἀδίκους ἢ ἀκολάστους² εἶναι, οἱ μὲν κακουργοῦντες,
οἱ δὲ ἐν πότοις καὶ τοῖς τοιούτοις διάγοντες· αἱ
γὰρ περὶ ἕκαστα ἐνέργειαι τοιούτους ποιοῦσιν.
- 11 τοῦτο δὲ δῆλον ἐκ τῶν μελετώντων πρὸς ἡντιοῦν
ἀγωνίαν ἢ πρᾶξιν· διατελοῦσι γὰρ ἐνεργοῦντες.
- 12 τὸ μὲν οὖν ἀγνοεῖν ὅτι ἐκ τοῦ ἐνεργεῖν περὶ ¹⁰
ἕκαστα αἱ ἕξεις γίνονται, κομιδῇ ἀναισθήτου.
- 13 [ἔτι δ' ἄλογον τὸν ἀδικοῦντα μὴ βούλεσθαι ἄδικον
- 14 εἶναι ἢ τὸν ἀκολασταίνοντα ἀκόλαστον.]³ εἰ δὲ
μὴ ἀγνοῶν, τις πράττει ἐξ ὧν ἔσται ἄδικος, ἐκὼν
ἄδικος ἂν εἴη.* οὐ μὴν ἐάν γε βούληται, ἄδικος

¹ τοιοῦτοι Rassow.

² ἄδικοι ἢ ἀκόλαστοι Rassow.

³ ἔτι δ' . . ἀκόλαστον *infra* post εἴη Rassow.

^a An enactment of Pittacus, tyrant of Mitylene, *Pol. ii. fin.*, 1274 b 19.

^b The words, 'but if a man . . . unjust' in the mss. come after § 13, 'unjust or dissolute.'

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, III. v. 8-14

- 8 Indeed the fact that an offence was com- even those
mitted in ignorance is itself made a ground for committed
punishment, in cases where the offender is held to in ignor-
be responsible for his ignorance ; for instance, the ance, if this
penalty is doubled if the offender was drunk, be due to
careless-
ness ;
because the origin of the offence was in the man
himself, as he might have avoided getting drunk,
which was the cause of his not knowing what he
was doing. Also men are punished for offences
committed through ignorance of some provision of
the law which they ought to have known, and might
9 have known without difficulty ; and so in other
cases where ignorance is held to be due to negligence,
on the ground that the offender need not have been
ignorant, as he could have taken the trouble to
ascertain the facts.
- 10 It may be objected that perhaps he is not the since care-
sort of man to take the trouble. Well, but men are lessness is
themselves responsible for having become careless itself the
through living carelessly, as they are for being result
unjust or profligate if they do wrong or pass their of past
time in drinking and dissipation. They acquire a conduct
a particular quality by constantly acting in a particu-
11 lar way. This is shown by the way in which men
train themselves for some contest or pursuit : they
12 practise continually. Therefore only an utterly
senseless person can fail to know that our characters
are the result of our conduct ; ^bbut if a man knowingly
acts in a way that will result in his becoming unjust,
he must be said to be voluntarily unjust.
- 13 Again, though it is unreasonable to say that That a vice
a man who acts unjustly or dissolutely does not cannot be
14 wish to be unjust or dissolute, nevertheless this by thrown off
no means implies that he can stop being unjust and at will, does
not prove

ARISTOTLE

ὣν παύσεται καὶ ἔσται δίκαιος· οὐδὲ γὰρ ὁ νοσῶν ὑγιής, καί<τοι>,¹ εἰ οὕτως ἔτυχεν, ἐκὼν 15 νοσεῖ. ἀκρατῶς βιοτεύων καὶ ἀπειθῶν τοῖς ἰατροῖς. τότε μὲν οὖν ἐξῆν αὐτῷ μὴ νοσεῖν, προεμένῳ δ' οὐκέτι, ὥσπερ οὐδ' ἀφέντι λίθον ἔτ' αὐτὸν δυνατὸν ἀναλαβεῖν· ἀλλ' ὅμως ἐπ' αὐτῷ τὸ λαβεῖν² καὶ ῥῖψαι· ἡ γὰρ ἀρχὴ ἐν³ αὐτῷ. οὕτω δὲ καὶ τῷ ἀδίκῳ καὶ τῷ ἀκολάστῳ ἐξ ἀρχῆς μὲν ἐξῆν 20 τοιούτοις μὴ γενέσθαι, διὸ ἐκόντες εἰσὶν· γενομένοις 15 δ' οὐκέτι ἔξεστι μὴ εἶναι. οὐ μόνον δ' αἱ τῆς ψυχῆς κακίαι ἐκούσιοί εἰσιν, ἀλλ' ἐνίοις καὶ αἱ τοῦ σώματος, οἷς καὶ ἐπιτιμῶμεν· τοῖς μὲν γὰρ διὰ φύσιν αἰσχροῖς οὐδεὶς ἐπιτιμᾷ, τοῖς δὲ δι' ἀγυμνασίαν καὶ ἀμέλειαν. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ 25 ἀσθένειαν καὶ πῆρωσιν· οὐθεὶς γὰρ ἂν ὀνειδίσαιε τυφλῷ φύσει ἢ ἐκ νόσου ἢ ἐκ πληγῆς, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον ἐλεῆσαι· τῷ δ' ἐξ οἰνοφλυγίας ἢ ἄλλης 16 ἀκολασίας πᾶς ἂν ἐπιτιμήσαι. τῶν δὲ περὶ τὸ σῶμα κακιῶν αἱ ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἐπιτιμῶνται, αἱ δὲ μὴ ἐφ' ἡμῖν οὔ. εἰ δ' οὕτω, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων αἱ 17 ἐπιτιμῶμεναι τῶν κακιῶν ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἂν εἶεν. εἰ 30 δέ τις λέγοι ὅτι “ πάντες ἐφίενται τοῦ φαινομένου ἀγαθοῦ, τῆς δὲ φαντασίας οὐ κύριοι, ἀλλ' ὁποῖός ποθ' ἕκαστός ἐστι, τοιοῦτο καὶ τὸ τέλος φαίνεται 1114b

¹ καί<τοι> Rassow : <εἰ> καὶ Ramsauer.

² λαβεῖν O¹² Ar. : βαλεῖν (βαλεῖν [καὶ ῥῖψαι] Bywater).

³ ἐν Rassow : ἐπ'.

become just merely by wishing to do so ; any more than a sick man can get well by wishing, although it may be the case that his illness is voluntary, in the sense of being due to intemperate living and neglect of the doctors' advice. At the outset then, it is true, he might have avoided the illness, but once he has let himself go he can do so no longer. When you have thrown a stone, you cannot afterwards bring it back again, but nevertheless you are responsible for having taken up the stone and flung it, for the origin of the act was within you. Similarly the unjust and profligate might at the outset have avoided becoming so, and therefore they are so voluntarily, although having become unjust and profligate it is no longer open to them not to be so.

that it is not avoidable.

- 15 And not only are vices of the soul voluntary, but in some cases bodily defects are so as well, and we blame them accordingly. Though no one blames a man for being born ugly, we censure uncomeliness that is due to neglecting exercise and the care of the person. And so with infirmities and organic defects : though nobody would reproach, but rather pity, a person blind from birth, or owing to disease or accident, yet all would blame one who had lost
- 16 his sight from tippling or debauchery. We see then that bodily defects for which we are ourselves responsible are blamed, while those for which we are not responsible are not. This being so, it follows that we are responsible for blameworthy moral defects also.

That it is so is proved by our being blamed for it as we are for avoidable bodily defects.

- 17 But suppose somebody says : " All men seek what seems to them good, but they are not responsible for its seeming good : each man's conception of his end is determined by his character,

It is objected that conduct is determined by innate character ;

- αὐτῷ· εἰ μὲν οὖν ἕκαστος ἑαυτῷ τῆς ἑξέως ἐστὶ
 πως αἷτιος, καὶ τῆς φαντασίας ἔσται πως αὐτὸς
 αἷτιος, εἰ δὲ μή, οὐθεὶς¹ αὐτῷ αἷτιος τοῦ κακὰ
 ποιεῖν, ἀλλὰ δι' ἄγνοιαν τοῦ τέλους ταῦτα πράττει, ⁵
 διὰ τούτων οἰόμενος αὐτῷ τὸ ἄριστον ἔσεσθαι, ἢ
 δὲ τοῦ τέλους ἔφεσις οὐκ αὐθαίρετος, ἀλλὰ φύται
 δεῖ ὥσπερ ὄψιν ἔχοντα, ἣ κρινεῖ καλῶς καὶ τὸ
 κατ' ἀλήθειαν ἀγαθὸν αἰρήσεται, καὶ ἔστιν εὐ-
 φύης, ᾧ τοῦτο καλῶς πέφυκεν· τὸ γὰρ μέγιστον
 καὶ κάλλιστον, καὶ ὁ παρ' ἑτέρου μὴ οἷόν τε ¹⁰
 λαβεῖν μηδὲ μαθεῖν, ἀλλ' οἷον ἔφυ, τοιοῦτον ἔξει,
 [καὶ] τὸ² εὖ καὶ [τὸ]³ καλῶς τοῦτο πεφυκέναι
 18 ἢ τελεία καὶ ἀληθινὴ ἂν εἴη εὐφυῖα''—εἰ δὲ ταῦτ'
 ἐστὶν ἀληθὴ, τί μᾶλλον ἢ ἀρετὴ τῆς κακίας ἔσται
 ἐκούσιον; ἀμφοῖν γὰρ ὁμοίως, τῷ ἀγαθῷ καὶ
 τῷ κακῷ, τὸ τέλος φύσει ἢ ὁπωσδήποτε φαίνεται ¹⁵
 καὶ κείται, τὰ δὲ λοιπὰ πρὸς τοῦτ' ἀναφέροντες
 19 πράττουσιν ὁπωσδήποτε. εἴτε δὲ τὸ τέλος μὴ
 φύσει ἐκάστω φαίνεται οἷονδήποτε, ἀλλὰ τι καὶ
 παρ' αὐτόν ἐστιν, εἴτε τὸ μὲν τέλος φυσικόν, τῷ
 δὲ τὰ λοιπὰ πράττειν ἐκούσιως τὸν σπουδαῖον ἢ
 ἀρετὴ ἐκούσιον ἐστὶν, οὐθὲν ἡττον καὶ ἡ κακία ²⁰
 ἐκούσιον ἂν εἴη· ὁμοίως γὰρ καὶ τῷ κακῷ ὑπάρχει
 τὸ δι' αὐτὸν⁴ ἐν ταῖς πράξεσι καὶ εἰ μὴ ἐν τῷ

¹ μή, οὐθεὶς: μηδεὶς L^b, Γ.

² [καὶ] τὸ Vermehren: τὸ δ' L^b.

³ [τὸ] om. Alex. Aphrod.

⁴ αὐτοῦ? Bywater.

^a This is Aristotle's view, which the imaginary objector challenges. It is not quite certain that his objection is meant to go as far as the point indicated by the inverted commas. ^b i.e., the end he aims at.

whatever that may be. Although therefore, on the hypothesis ^a that each man is in a sense responsible for his moral disposition, he will in a sense be responsible for his conception of the good, if on the contrary this hypothesis be untrue, no man is responsible for his own wrongdoing. He does wrong through ignorance of the right end, thinking that wrongdoing will procure him his greatest Good ; and his aim at his end ^b is not of his own choosing. A man needs to be born with moral vision, so to speak, whereby to discern correctly and choose what is truly good. A man of good natural disposition is a man well endowed by nature in this respect ; for if a thing is the greatest and noblest of gifts, and is something which cannot be acquired or learnt from another, but which a man will possess in such form as it has been bestowed on him at birth, a good and noble natural endowment in this respect will constitute a good disposition in the full and true meaning of the term."

- 18 Now if this theory be true, how will virtue be voluntary any more than vice ? Both for the good man and the bad man alike, their view of their end is determined in the same manner, by nature or however it may be ; and all their actions of whatever sort are guided by reference to their end as thus determined. Whether then a man's view of his end, whatever it may be, is not given by nature but is partly due to himself, or whether, although his end is determined by nature, yet virtue is voluntary because the good man's actions to gain his end are voluntary, in either case vice will be just as much voluntary as virtue ; for the bad man equally with the good possesses spontaneity in his

but this argument destroy responsibility for good conduct as well as for bad.

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- 20 τέλει. εἰ οὖν, ὥσπερ λέγεται, ἐκούσιοί εἰσιν αἱ
ἀρεταί (καὶ γὰρ τῶν ἕξεων συναίτιοί πως αὐτοὶ
ἐσμεν, καὶ τῷ ποιοί τινες εἶναι τὸ τέλος τοιόνδε
τιθέμεθα), καὶ αἱ κακίαι ἐκούσιοι ἂν εἶεν· ὁμοίως 25
γάρ.
- 21 Κοινῇ μὲν οὖν περὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν εἴρηται ἡμῖν
τό τε γένος τύπῳ, [ὅτι μεσότης καὶ ἕξις],¹ ὑφ'
ᾧν τε γίνονται, ὅτι τούτων καὶ πρακτικοί² κατ'
αὐτάς,³ [καὶ ὅτι ἐφ' ἡμῖν καὶ ἐκούσιοι,]⁴ καὶ οὕτως
- 22 ὡς ἂν ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος προστάξῃ*. οὐχ ὁμοίως 30
δὲ αἱ πράξεις ἐκούσιοί εἰσι καὶ αἱ ἕξεις· τῶν μὲν
γὰρ πράξεων ἀπ' ἀρχῆς μέχρι τοῦ τέλους κύριοί
ἐσμεν, εἰδότες τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα, τῶν ἕξεων δὲ τῆς
ἀρχῆς, καθ' ἕκαστα δὲ ἢ πρόσθεσις οὐ γνῶριμος, 1115 a
ὥσπερ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρρωστιῶν· ἀλλ' ὅτι ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἦν
οὕτως ἢ μὴ οὕτω χρῆσασθαι, διὰ τοῦτο ἐκούσιοι.
- 23 Ἀναλαμβάνοντες δὲ περὶ ἐκάστης εἰπόμεν τίνες
εἰσὶ καὶ περὶ ποῖα καὶ πῶς· ἅμα δ' ἔσται δῆλον καὶ 5
vι πόσαι εἰσὶν. καὶ πρῶτον περὶ ἀνδρείας. ὅτι μὲν
οὖν μεσότης ἐστὶ περὶ φόβους καὶ θάρρη, ἥδη

¹ ὅτι μεσότης καὶ ἕξις K^b, seclisut ed.: ὅτι μεσότητες καὶ ἕξεις L^b: ὅτι μεσότητές εἰσιν καὶ ὅτι ἕξεις vulg.

² πρακτικοί K^b, πρακτικαὶ καὶ O^b.

³ κατ' αὐτάς ed.: καθ' αὐτάς (κατὰ ταύτας M^b).

⁴ [καὶ ὅτι . . . ἐκούσιοι] infra post προστάξῃ Richards.

^a This clause looks like an interpolation: ἕξις is the *genus* of virtue, II. v. fin., vi. init., μεσότης its *differentia*, II. vi. 15, 17.

^b See II. ii. 8.

^c See II. ii. 2. This clause in the mss. follows the next one.

^a See c. v. 2 and 20.

- 20 actions, even if not in his choice of an end. If then, as Conclusion.
 is said, our virtues are voluntary (and in fact we are
 in a sense ourselves partly the cause of our moral
 dispositions, and it is our having a certain character
 that makes us set up an end of a certain kind), it
 follows that our vices are voluntary also; they are
 voluntary in the same manner as our virtues.
- 21 We have then now discussed in outline the virtues Recapitula-
 tion of Bks
 II, III. 1-v.
 in general, having indicated their genus [namely,
 that it is a mean, and a disposition^a—and having
 shown that they render us apt to do the same actions
 as those by which they are produced,^b and to do
 them in the way in which right reason may enjoin^c;
 and that they depend on ourselves and are voluntary.^d
- 22 ^e But our dispositions are not voluntary in the Note to c. v.
 same way as are our actions. Our actions we can
 control from beginning to end, and we are conscious
 of them at each stage.^f With our dispositions on
 the other hand, though we can control their begin-
 nings, each separate addition to them is imper-
 ceptible, as is the case with the growth of a disease;
 though they are voluntary in that we were free to
 employ our capacities in the one way or the other.
- 23 But to resume, let us now discuss the virtues Contents of
 Bks. III. vi-
 end, IV, V.
 The several
 Moral Vir-
 tues.
 severally, defining the nature of each, the class of
 objects to which it is related, and the way in which
 it is related to them. In so doing we shall also
 make it clear how many virtues there are.
- vi Let us first take Courage. We have already Courage.
 seen^g that Courage is the observance of the mean in

^a This section some editors place before § 21, but it is
 rather a footnote to § 14; and the opening words of § 23
 imply that a digression has been made.

^f τὰ καθ' ἑκάστα seems to bear a somewhat different sense
 here from c. i. 15, ἡ καθ' ἑκάστα (ἀγνοία). ^g II. vii. 2.

2 φανερόν γεγένηται¹. φοβούμεθα δὲ δηλονότι τὰ
 φοβερά, ταῦτα δ' ἐστὶν ὡς ἀπλῶς εἰπεῖν <τὰ>²
 κακά· διὸ καὶ τὸν φόβον ὀρίζονται προσδοκίαν
 3 κακοῦ. φοβούμεθα μὲν οὖν πάντα τὰ κακά, οἷον 10
 ἀδοξίαν πενίαν νόσον ἀφιλίαν θάνατον, ἀλλ', οὐ
 περὶ πάντα δοκεῖ ὁ ἀνδρεῖος εἶναι· ἔνια γὰρ καὶ δεῖ
 φοβεῖσθαι καὶ καλόν, τὸ δὲ μὴ αἰσχρόν, οἷον
 ἀδοξίαν· ὁ μὲν γὰρ φοβούμενος ἐπιεικῆς καὶ
 αἰδήμων, ὁ δὲ μὴ φοβούμενος ἀναίσχυντος· λέγεται 15
 δ' ὑπὸ τινων ἀνδρεῖος κατὰ μεταφοράν· ἔχει γάρ
 τι ὅμοιον τῷ ἀνδρείῳ· ἄφοβος γάρ τις καὶ ὁ
 4 ἀνδρεῖος. πενίαν δ' ἴσως οὐ δεῖ φοβεῖσθαι οὐδὲ
 νόσον, οὐδ' ὅλως ὅσα μὴ ἀπὸ κακίας μηδὲ δι'
 αὐτόν. ἀλλ' οὐδ' ὁ περὶ ταῦτα ἄφοβος ἀνδρεῖος
 (λέγομεν δὲ καὶ τοῦτον καθ' ὁμοιότητα)· ἔνιοι γὰρ 20
 ἐν τοῖς πολεμικοῖς κινδύνοις δειλοὶ ὄντες ἐλευ-
 θέριοι εἰσι καὶ πρὸς χρημάτων ἀποβολὴν εὐθαρσῶς
 5 ἔχουσιν. οὐδὲ δὴ εἴ τις ὕβριν περὶ παῖδας καὶ
 γυναῖκα φοβεῖται, ἢ φθόνον ἢ τι τῶν τοιούτων,
 δειλὸς ἐστίν· οὐδ' εἰ θαρρεῖ μέλλων μαστιγοῦσθαι,
 6 ἀνδρεῖος. περὶ ποῖα οὖν³ τῶν φοβερῶν ὁ ἀνδρεῖος; 25
 ἢ περὶ τὰ μέγιστα; οὐθεὶς γὰρ ὑπομενετικώτερος
 τῶν δεινῶν. φοβερώτατον δ' ὁ θάνατος· πέρας
 γάρ, καὶ οὐδὲν ἔτι τῷ τεθνεῶτι δοκεῖ οὔτ' ἀγαθὸν
 7 οὔτε κακὸν εἶναι. δόξειε δ' ἂν οὐδὲ περὶ θάνατον

¹ φανερόν γεγένηται K^b: καὶ πρότερον εἴρηται L^bΓ.

² Richards.

³ δ' οὖν K^b, γοῦν? Bywater.

- 2 respect of fear and confidence. Now it is clear that the things we fear are fearful things, which means, broadly speaking, evil things ; so that fear is some-
 3 times defined as the anticipation of evil. It is true then that we fear all evil things, for example, disgrace, poverty, disease, lack of friends, death ; but it is not thought that Courage is related to all these things, for there are some evils which it is right and noble to fear and base not to fear, for instance, disgrace. One who fears disgrace is an honourable man, with a due sense of shame ; one who does not fear it is shameless : though some people apply the term courageous to such a man by analogy, because he bears some resemblance to the courageous man in that the courageous man also is a fearless person.
- 4 Again, it is no doubt right not to fear poverty, or disease, or in general any evil not caused by vice and not due to ourselves. But one who is fearless in regard to these things is not courageous either (although the term is applied to him, too, by analogy) ; since some men who are cowards in war are liberal with money, and face loss of fortune boldly.
- 5 Nor yet is a man cowardly if he fears insult to his wife and children, or envy, or the like ; nor courageous if he shows a bold face when about to undergo a flogging.
- 6 What then are the fearful things in respect of which Courage is displayed ? I suppose those which are the greatest, since there is no one more brave in enduring danger than the courageous man. Now the most terrible thing of all is death ; for it is the end, and when a man is dead, nothing, we think,
 7 either good or evil can befall him any more. But

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- τὸν ἐν παντὶ ὁ ἀνδρεῖος εἶναι, οἷον ἐν θαλάττῃ ἢ
 8 ἐν νόσοις. ἐν τίσιν οὖν; ἢ ἐν τοῖς καλλίστοις; 30
 τοιοῦτοι δὲ οἱ ἐν πολέμῳ· ἐν μεγίστῳ γὰρ καὶ
 9 καλλίστῳ κινδύνῳ. ὁμόλογοι δὲ τούτοις εἰσὶ καὶ
 αἱ τιμαὶ αἱ ἐν ταῖς πόλεσι καὶ παρὰ τοῖς μονάρχοις.
 10 κυρίως δὲ λέγοιτ' ἂν ἀνδρεῖος ὁ περὶ τὸν καλὸν
 θάνατον ἀδεῆς, καὶ ὅσα θάνατον ἐπιφέρει ὑπόγυια
 11 ὄντα· τοιαῦτα δὲ μάλιστα τὰ κατὰ πόλεμον. οὐ 35
 μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ ἐν θαλάττῃ καὶ ἐν νόσοις ἀδεῆς ὁ 1115 b
 ἀνδρεῖος, οὐχ οὕτω δὲ ὥς οἱ θαλάττιοι· οἱ μὲν γὰρ
 ἀπεγνώκασιν τὴν σωτηρίαν καὶ τὸν θάνατον τὸν
 τοιοῦτον δυσχεραίνουσιν, οἱ δὲ εὐέλπιδές εἰσι παρὰ
 12 τὴν ἐμπειρίαν. ἅμα δὲ καὶ ἀνδρίζονται ἐν οἷς ἐστὶν
 ἀλκὴ ἢ καλὸν τὸ ἀποθανεῖν· ἐν ταῖς τοιαύταις δὲ 5
 φθοραῖς οὐθέτερον ὑπάρχει.
- vii Τὸ δὲ φοβερὸν οὐ πᾶσι μὲν τὸ αὐτό, λέγομεν δέ
 τι καὶ ὑπὲρ ἄνθρωπον. τοῦτο μὲν οὖν παντὶ
 φοβερὸν τῷ γε νοῦν ἔχοντι, τὰ δὲ κατ' ἄνθρωπον
 διαφέρει μεγέθει καὶ τῷ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον (ὁμοίως 10
 2 δὲ καὶ τὰ θαρραλέα). ὁ δὲ ἀνδρεῖος ἀνέκπληκτος
 ὡς ἄνθρωπος· φοβήσεται μὲν οὖν καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα,

^a Or perhaps 'imminent,' but cf. c. viii. 15.

^b i.e., he resents it as inglorious.

^c In using τὰ θαρραλέα as the opposite of τὰ φοβερά Aristotle follows Plato, *Rep.* 450 E, *Protag.* 359 C, *Lach.* 195 B, etc.; but he is original in distinguishing confidence as regards the former from fearlessness as regards the latter, and so considering excessive fearlessness in grave dangers as a different vice from excessive confidence in dangers not really formidable.

even death, we should hold, does not in all circumstances give an opportunity for Courage : for instance, we do not call a man courageous for facing death by drowning or disease. What form of death then is a test of Courage ? Presumably that which is the noblest. Now the noblest form of death is death in battle, for it is encountered in the midst of the greatest and most noble of dangers. And this conclusion is borne out by the principle on which public honours are bestowed in republics and under monarchies.

The courageous man, therefore, in the proper sense of the term, will be he who fearlessly confronts a noble death, or some sudden^a peril that threatens death ; and the perils of war answer this description most fully. Not that the courageous man is not also fearless in a storm at sea (as also in illness), though not in the same way as sailors are fearless, for he thinks there is no hope of safety, and to die by drowning is revolting to him,^b whereas sailors keep up heart because of their experience. Also Courage is shown in dangers where a man can defend himself by valour or die nobly, but neither is possible in disasters like shipwreck.

vii Now although the same things are not fearful to everybody, there are some terrors which we pronounce beyond human endurance, and these of course are fearful to everyone in his senses. And the terrors that man can endure differ in magnitude and degree ; as also do the situations inspiring confidence.^c But the courageous man is proof against fear so far as man may be. Hence although he will sometimes fear even terrors not beyond man's endurance, he will do so in the right way, and he will endure them as

Courage
std. : its
motive
is its own
nobility.

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ὥς δεῖ δέ,¹ καὶ ὥς ὁ λόγος ὑπομενεῖ,² τοῦ καλοῦ
 3 ἔνεκα· τοῦτο γὰρ τέλος τῆς ἀρετῆς. ἔστι δὲ
 μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον ταῦτα φοβεῖσθαι, καὶ ἔτι τὰ μὴ
 4 φοβερά ὥς τοιαῦτα φοβεῖσθαι. γίνεται δὲ τῶν 15
 ἁμαρτιῶν ἡ μὲν ὅτι ὁ³ οὐ δεῖ, ἡ δὲ ὅτι οὐχ ὥς δεῖ,
 ἡ δὲ ὅτι οὐχ ὅτε, ἡ τι τῶν τοιούτων· ὁμοίως δὲ
 5 καὶ περὶ τὰ θαρραλέα. ὁ μὲν οὖν ἁ δεῖ καὶ οὐ
 ἔνεκα ὑπομένων καὶ φοβούμενος, καὶ ὥς δεῖ καὶ
 ὅτε, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ θαρρῶν, ἀνδρείος (κατ' ἀξίαν
 γάρ, καὶ ὥς ἂν ὁ λόγος, πάσχει καὶ πράττει ὁ 20
 6 ἀνδρείος· τέλος δὲ πάσης ἐνεργείας ἐστὶ τὸ κατὰ
 τὴν ἔξιν, καὶ τῷ ἀνδρείῳ δὴ⁴· ἡ <δ>⁵ ἀνδρεία καλόν·
 τοιοῦτον δὴ καὶ τὸ τέλος, ὀρίζεται γὰρ ἕκαστον
 τῷ τέλει· καλοῦ δὴ ἔνεκα ὁ ἀνδρείος ὑπομένει καὶ
 7 πράττει τὰ κατὰ τὴν ἀνδρείαν· τῶν δ' ὑπερ-
 βαλλόντων ὁ μὲν τῇ ἀφοβίᾳ ἀνώνυμος (εἴρηται 25
 δ' ἡμῖν ἐν τοῖς πρότερον ὅτι πολλά ἐστὶν ἀνώνυμα),
 εἶη δ' ἂν τις μαινώμενος ἢ ἀνάληγτος, εἰ μὴθὲν
 φοβοῖτο, μήτε σεισμὸν μήτε⁶ κύματα, καθάπερ
 φασὶ τοὺς Κελτούς· ὁ δὲ τῷ θαρρεῖν ὑπερβάλλων

¹ post ὥς δεῖ δὲ interpunxit Burnet.

² ὑπομενεῖ <τε> Susemihl.

³ δ add. Γ : ἀ Coraes.

⁴ δὴ Rassow : δέ.

⁵ <δ> Rassow.

⁶ μήτε K^b : μήτε τὰ vulg.

^a i.e., the rightness and fineness of the act itself, cf. § 13, c. viii. 5, 14, c. ix. 4; and see note on i. iii. 2. This amplification of the conception of virtue as aiming at the mean here appears for the first time: we now have the final as well as the formal cause of virtuous action.

^b II. vii. 2.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, III. vii. 2-7

principle dictates, for the sake of what is noble^a; for
 3 that is the end at which virtue aims. On the other
 hand it is possible to fear such terrors too much,
 and too little; and also to fear things that are not
 4 fearful as if they were fearful. Error arises either
 from fearing what one ought not to fear, or from
 fearing in the wrong manner, or at the wrong time,
 or the like; and similarly with regard to occasions
 for confidence.

5 The courageous man then is he that endures or
 fears the right things and for the right purpose and
 in the right manner and at the right time, and who
 shows confidence in a similar way. (For the courage-
 ous man feels and acts as the circumstances merit,
 6 and as principle may dictate. And every activity
 aims at the end that corresponds to the disposition of
 which it is the manifestation. So it is therefore with
 the activity of the courageous man: his courage
 is noble; therefore its end is nobility, for a thing
 is defined by its end; therefore the courageous
 man endures the terrors and dares the deeds that
 manifest courage, for the sake of that which is noble.)

7 Of the characters that run to excess, on the other
 hand, he who exceeds in fearlessness has no name
 (this, as we remarked before,^b is the case with many
 qualities), but we should call a man mad, or else
 insensitive to pain, if he feared nothing, 'earth-
 quake nor billows,'^c as they say of the Kelts; he
 who exceeds in confidence [in the face of fearful

Rashness
and
Cowardice.

^a Apparently a verse quotation. Cf. *Eudemian Ethics*, 1229 b 28, 'As the Kelts take up arms and march against the waves'; and Strabo, vii. p. 293, gives similar stories, partly on the authority of the fourth-century historian Ephorus. An echo survives in Shakespeare's simile 'to take arms against a sea of troubles.'

- 8 [περὶ τὰ φοβερά]¹ θρασύς. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ ἀλαζών
εἶναι ὁ θρασύς καὶ προσποιητικὸς ἀνδρείας· ὥς ³⁰
γοῦν² ἐκεῖνος περὶ τὰ φοβερά ἔχει, οὕτως οὗτος³
βούλεται φαίνεσθαι· ἐν οἷς οὖν δύναται, μιμείται·
9 διὸ καὶ εἰσὶν οἱ πολλοὶ αὐτῶν θρασυδείλοι· ἐν
τούτοις γὰρ θρασυνόμενοι τὰ φοβερά οὐχ ὑπο-
10 μένουσιν. ὁ δὲ τῷ φοβεῖσθαι ὑπερβάλλων δειλός·
καὶ γὰρ ἂ μὴ δεῖ καὶ ὥς οὐ δεῖ, καὶ πάντα τὰ ³⁵
τοιαῦτα ἀκολουθεῖ αὐτῷ. ἐλλείπει δὲ καὶ τῷ ¹¹¹⁶
θαρρεῖν· ἀλλ' ἐν ταῖς λύπαις ὑπερβάλλων μᾶλλον
11 καταφανής ἐστίν. δύσελπις δὴ τις ὁ δειλός, πάντα
γὰρ φοβεῖται· ὁ δ' ἀνδρείος ἐναντίως, τὸ γὰρ
12 θαρρεῖν εὐέλπιδος. περὶ ταῦτά μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ὃ
τε δειλός καὶ ὁ θρασύς καὶ ὁ ἀνδρείος, διαφόρως δ' ⁵
ἔχουσι πρὸς αὐτά· οἱ μὲν γὰρ ὑπερβάλλουσι καὶ
ἐλλείπουσιν, ὁ δὲ μέσως ἔχει καὶ ὥς δεῖ· καὶ οἱ
μὲν θρασεῖς προπετεῖς, καὶ βουλόμενοι πρὸ τῶν
κινδύνων ἐν αὐτοῖς δ' ἀφίστανται, οἱ δ' ἀνδρείοι ἐν
τοῖς ἔργοις ὀξεῖς, πρότερον δ' ἡσύχιοι.
- 13 Καθάπερ οὖν εἴρηται, ἡ ἀνδρεία μεσότης ἐστὶ ¹⁰
περὶ θαρραλέα καὶ φοβερά ἐν οἷς εἴρηται, καὶ ὅτι
καλὸν θαρρεῖ τε⁴ καὶ ὑπομένει, ἢ ὅτι αἰσχροὺς τὸ
μή. τὸ δ' ἀποθνήσκειν φεύγοντα πενίαν ἢ ἔρωτα
ἢ τι λυπηρὸν οὐκ ἀνδρείου, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον δειλοῦ·
μῶλακία γὰρ τὸ φεύγειν τὰ ἐπίπονα, καὶ οὐχ ὅτι ¹⁵

¹ ed.² γοῦν Bywater: οὖν.³ οὕτως οὗτος: οὗτος Γ, οὕτως K^b. ⁴ θαρρεῖ τε ed.: αἰρεῖται.^a These words seem to be an interpolation: confidence is shown in face of θαρραλέα, not φοβερά.^b i.e., ἐν τοῖς θαρραλέοις, in situations not really formidable.^c For symmetry this should have been 'he that is deficient in fearlessness.' ^d See c. vi. 10.^e The mss. have 'it chooses and endures.'

- 8 things ^a] is rash. The rash man is generally thought to be an impostor, who pretends to courage which he does not possess; at least, he wishes to appear to feel towards fearful things as the courageous man actually does feel, and therefore he imitates
- 9 him in the things in which he can.^b Hence most rash men really are cowards at heart, for they make a bold show in situations that inspire confidence, but do not endure terrors.
- 10 He that exceeds in fear ^c is a coward, for he fears the wrong things, and in the wrong manner, and so on with the rest of the list. He is also deficient in confidence; but his excessive fear in face of pain
- 11 is more apparent. The coward is therefore a despondent person, being afraid of everything; but the courageous man is just the opposite, for confidence belongs to a sanguine temperament.
- 12 The coward, the rash man, and the courageous man are therefore concerned with the same objects, but are differently disposed towards them: the two former exceed and fall short, the last keeps the mean and the right disposition. The rash, moreover, are impetuous and eager before the danger comes, but hang back at the critical moment; whereas the courageous are keen at the time of action but calm beforehand.
- 13 As has been said then, Courage is the observance of the mean in relation to things that inspire confidence or fear, in the circumstances stated ^d; and it is confident and endures ^e because it is noble to do so or base not to do so. But to seek death in order to escape from poverty, or the pangs of love, or from pain or sorrow, is not the act of a courageous man, but rather of a coward; for it is weakness to fly

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viii καλὸν ὑπομένει, ἀλλὰ φεύγων κακόν. ἔστι μὲν οὖν ἡ ἀνδρεία τοιοῦτόν τι λέγονται δὲ καὶ ἕτεραι κατὰ πέντε τρόπους, πρῶτον μὲν ἡ πολιτική· μάλιστα γὰρ ἔοικεν· δοκοῦσι γὰρ ὑπομένειν τοὺς κινδύνους οἱ πολῖται διὰ τὰ ἐκ τῶν νόμων ἐπιτίμια καὶ τὰ ὀνειδή καὶ διὰ τὰς τιμὰς. καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ²⁰ ἀνδρεϊότατοι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι παρ' οἷς οἱ δειλοὶ ² ἄτιμοι καὶ οἱ ἀνδρεῖοι ἔντιμοι. τοιούτους δὲ καὶ "Ομηρος ποιεῖ, οἷον τὸν Διομήδην καὶ τὸν Ἑκτορα·

Πουλυδάμας μοι πρῶτος ἐλεγχείην ἀναθήσει·
καὶ Διομήδης¹

Ἑκτωρ γάρ ποτε φήσει ἐνὶ Τρώεσσ' ἀγορεύων, ²⁵
"Τυδεΐδης ὑπ' ἐμείῳ . . ."

3 ὁμοίωται δ' αὕτη μάλιστα τῇ πρότερον εἰρημένη, ὅτι δι' ἀρετὴν γίνεται (δι' αἰδῶ γὰρ) καὶ διὰ καλοῦ ὀρεξίν (τιμῆς γάρ) καὶ φυγὴν ὀνειδούς, αἰσχροῦ ⁴ ὄντος. τάξαι δ' ἂν τις καὶ τοὺς ὑπὸ τῶν ἀρχόντων ³⁰ ἀναγκαζομένους εἰς ταυτό· χείρους δ', ὅσῳ οὐ δι' αἰδῶ ἀλλὰ διὰ φόβον αὐτὸ δρῶσι, καὶ φεύγοντες οὐ τὸ αἰσχρὸν ἀλλὰ τὸ λυπηρόν· ἀναγκάζουσι γὰρ οἱ κύριοι, ὥσπερ ὁ Ἑκτωρ·

¹ Διομήδης secl. Bywater.

^a 'Political courage': Plato uses this phrase (*Rep.* 430 c) of patriotic courage, based on training and 'right opinion about what is terrible and what is not,' and in contrast with the undisciplined courage of slaves and brute beasts. Elsewhere, on the other hand, he contrasts 'popular and citizen virtue' in general with the philosopher's virtue, which is based on knowledge.

^b *Iliad*, xxii. 100 (Hector)—

Alas, should I retire within the gates,
Polydamas, . . .

from troubles, and the suicide does not endure death because it is noble to do so, but to escape evil.

viii Such is the nature of Courage ; but the name is also applied to five divergent types of character. Courage
cld. : im-
perfect
forms :
' Citizen
Courage.'

(1) First, as most closely resembling true Courage, comes the citizen's courage.^a Citizen troops appear to endure dangers because of the legal penalties and the reproach attaching to cowardice, and the honours awarded to bravery ; hence those races appear to be the bravest among which cowards are 2 degraded and brave men held in honour. It is this citizen courage which inspires the heroes portrayed by Homer, like Diomedes and Hector :

Polydamas will be the first to flout me ;^b

and Diomedes says

Hector will make his boast at Troy hereafter :

" By me was Tydeus' son . . ."^c

3 This type of courage most closely resembles the one described before, because it is prompted by a virtue, namely the sense of shame,^d and by the desire for something noble, namely honour, and the wish to avoid the disgrace of being reproached.

4 The courage of troops forced into battle by their officers may be classed as of the same type, though they are inferior inasmuch as their motive is not a sense of shame but fear, and the desire to avoid not disgrace but pain. Their masters compel them to be brave, after Hector's fashion :

^c *Iliad*, viii. 148—

By me was Tydeus's son routed in flight
Back to the ships.

^d For this emotion see II. vii. 14, iv. ix. 1, where it is said not to be, strictly speaking, a virtue.

ὃν δέ κ' ἐγὼν ἀπάνευθε μάχης πτώσσοντα νοήσω,
οὗ οἱ ἄρκιον ἐσσεῖται φυγέειν κύνας.

25

5 καὶ οἱ προτάττοντες,¹ καὶ ἀναχωρῶσι τύπτοντες,
τὸ αὐτὸ δρῶσι, καὶ οἱ πρὸ τῶν τάφρων καὶ τῶν 1116
τοιούτων παρατάττοντες· πάντες γὰρ ἀναγκάζου-
σιν. δεῖ δ' οὐ δι' ἀνάγκην ἀνδρεῖον εἶναι, ἀλλ' ὅτι
6 καλόν.—δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ ἡ ἐμπειρία ἡ περὶ ἕκαστα
ἀνδρεία τις² εἶναι· ὅθεν καὶ ὁ Σωκράτης ὤηθη
ἐπιστήμην εἶναι τὴν ἀνδρείαν. τοιοῦτοί δὲ ἄλλοι 5
μὲν ἐν ἄλλοις, ἐν τοῖς πολεμικοῖς δ' οἱ στρατιῶται·
δοκεῖ γὰρ εἶναι πολλὰ κενὰ³ τοῦ πολέμου, ἃ μάλιστα
συνεωράκασιν οὗτοι· φαίνονται δὲ ἀνδρεῖοι ὅτι
7 οὐκ ἴσασιν οἱ ἄλλοι οἷά ἐστιν. εἶτα ποιῆσαι καὶ
μὴ παθεῖν μάλιστα δύνανται ἐκ τῆς ἐμπειρίας, 10
δυνάμενοι χρῆσθαι τοῖς ὅπλοις καὶ τοιαῦτα ἔχοντες
ὅποια ἂν εἴη καὶ πρὸς τὸ ποιῆσαι καὶ πρὸς τὸ
8 μὴ παθεῖν κράτιστα. ὥσπερ οὖν ἀνόπλοις ὥπλι-
σμένοι μάχονται καὶ ἀθλῆται ἰδιώταις· καὶ γὰρ ἐν
τοῖς τοιούτοις ἀγῶσιν οὐχ οἱ ἀνδρεϊότατοι μαχι-
μώτατοί εἰσιν, ἀλλ' οἱ μάλιστα ἰσχύοντες καὶ τὰ 15
9 σώματα ἄριστα ἔχοντες. οἱ στρατιῶται δὲ δειλοὶ
γίνονται ὅταν ὑπερτείνῃ ὁ κίνδυνος καὶ λείπωνται
τοῖς πλήθεσι καὶ ταῖς παρασκευαῖς· πρῶτοι γὰρ
φεύγουσι, τὰ δὲ πολιτικὰ μένοντα ἀποθνήσκει,

¹ προτάττοντες codd. Amioti, Vict. : προστάττοντες.

² τις om. K^b.

³ κενὰ K^b.

^a *Iliad*, ii. 391, but the words are Agamemnon's, and are slightly different in our Homer.

^b i.e., knowledge of what is truly formidable and what is not (cf. note on c. viii. 1); but Socrates went on to show that this depended on knowledge of the good, with which he identified all virtue: see Plato's *Laches*.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, III. viii. 4-9

Let me see any skulking off the field—
He shall not save his carcase from the dogs ! ^a

- 5 The same is done by commanders who draw up their troops in front of them and beat them if they give ground, or who form them in line with a trench or some other obstacle in the rear ; all these are using compulsion. A man ought not to be brave because he is compelled to be, but because courage is noble.
- 6 (2) Again, experience of some particular form of danger is taken for Courage ; hence arose Socrates' notion that Courage is Knowledge.^b This type of bravery is displayed in various circumstances, and particularly in war by professional soldiers.^c For war (as the saying is) is full of false alarms, a fact which these men have had most opportunity of observing ; thus they appear courageous owing
- 7 to others' ignorance of the true situation. Also experience renders them the most efficient in inflicting loss on the enemy without sustaining it themselves, as they are skilled in the use of arms, and equipped with the best ones both for attack and
- 8 defence. So that they are like armed men fighting against unarmed, or trained athletes against amateurs ; for even in athletic contests it is not the bravest men who are the best fighters, but those
- 9 who are strongest and in the best training. But professional soldiers prove cowards when the danger imposes too great a strain, and when they are at a disadvantage in numbers and equipment ; for they are the first to run away, while citizen troops stand their ground and die fighting, as happened in the

^a *i.e.*, ξένους, foreign mercenary troops, much employed in Greek warfare in Aristotle's time.

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- ὅπερ καὶ πὶ τῷ Ἑρμαίῳ συνέβη. τοῖς μὲν γὰρ αἰσχροὺς τὸ φεύγειν καὶ ὁ θάνατος τῆς τοιαύτης 20 σωτηρίας αἰρετώτερος· οἱ δὲ καὶ ἐξ ἀρχῆς ἐκινδύνευον ὡς κρείττους ὄντες, γνόντες δὲ φεύγουσι, τὸν θάνατον μᾶλλον τοῦ αἰσχροῦ φοβούμενοι· ὃ δ' 10 ἀνδρείος οὐ τοιοῦτος.—καὶ τὸν θυμὸν δ' ἐπὶ τὴν ἀνδρείαν ἀναφέρουσιν¹. ἀνδρεῖοι γὰρ εἶναι δοκοῦσι καὶ οἱ διὰ θυμὸν ὥσπερ τὰ θηρία ἐπὶ τοὺς τρώ- 25 σοντας φερόμενα,² ὅτι καὶ οἱ ἀνδρεῖοι θυμοειδεῖς (ἱτητικώτατον γὰρ ὁ θυμὸς πρὸς τοὺς κινδύνους). ὅθεν καὶ Ὅμηρος “σθένος ἔμβαλε θυμῷ” καὶ “μένος καὶ θυμὸν ἔγειρε” καὶ “δριμὺ δ' ἀνὰ ῥῖνας μένος” καὶ “ἔξισεν αἷμα”. πάντα γὰρ τὰ τοιαῦτα 30 εἵκει σημαίνειν τὴν τοῦ θυμοῦ ἔγερσιν καὶ ὁρμήν. 11 οἱ μὲν οὖν ἀνδρεῖοι διὰ τὸ καλὸν πράττουσιν, ὁ δὲ θυμὸς συνεργεῖ αὐτοῖς· τὰ θηρία δὲ διὰ λύπην· διὰ γὰρ τὸ πληγῆναι, ἢ διὰ τὸ³ φοβεῖσθαι, ἐπεὶ ἑάν γε ἐν ὕλῃ [ἢ ἐν ἔλει]⁴ ἦ,⁵ οὐ προσέρχονται. οὐ δὴ ἐστὶν ἀνδρεία διὰ τὸ ὑπ' ἀλγηδόνης καὶ θυμοῦ ἐξελαυνόμενα πρὸς τὸν κίνδυνον ὁρμᾶν, οὐθὲν τῶν 35 δεινῶν προορῶντα, ἐπεὶ οὕτω γε καὶ οἱ ὄνοι ἀνδρεῖοι εἶεν πεινῶντες· τυπτόμενοι γὰρ οὐκ ἀφ- 1117 a

¹ ἀναφέρουσιν L^b: φέρουσιν K^b, ἐπιφέρουσιν Γ.

² φερόμενοι Γ. ³ διὰ τὸ om. L^b.

⁴ [ἢ ἐν ἔλει] auctore Victorio Bywater.

⁵ ἦ fort. secludendum ed.

^a In Coronea, 353 B.C.; the Acropolis had been seized by Onomarchus the Phocian, and mercenaries, brought in by the Boeotarchs to aid the citizens, ran away at the beginning of the battle (schol.).

battle at the temple of Hermes.^a This is because citizens think it disgraceful to run away, and prefer death to safety so procured; whereas professional soldiers were relying from the outset on superior strength, and when they discover they are outnumbered they take to flight, fearing death more than disgrace. But this is not true courage.

10 (3) Spirit or anger^b is also classed with Courage. *Spirit.*

Men emboldened by anger, like wild beasts which rush upon the hunter that has wounded them, are supposed to be courageous, because the courageous also are high-spirited; for spirit is very impetuous in encountering danger. Hence Homer writes,^c 'he put strength in their spirit,' and 'roused their might and their spirit,' and 'bitter wrath up through his nostrils swelled,' and 'his blood boiled'; for all such symptoms seem to indicate an excitement and

11 impulse of the spirit. Thus the real motive of courageous men is the nobility of courage, although spirit operates in them as well; but wild animals are emboldened by pain, for they turn to bay because they are wounded, or frightened—since if they are in a forest or a swamp^d they do not attack. Therefore they are not to be considered courageous for rushing upon danger when spurred by pain and anger, and blind to the dangers that await them; since on that reckoning even asses would be brave when they are hungry, for no blows will make them

^b *θυμός* means both 'spirit' or 'high spirit' and also its manifestation in anger.

^c *i.e.*, in describing courageous men, *Iliad*, xiv. 151 or xvi. 529, v. 470, *Odyssey*, xxiv. 318. The fourth phrase is not in our Homer.

^d *i.e.*, in a place where they can escape. The words 'or a swamp,' are probably interpolated.

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ίστανται τῆς νομῆς. (καὶ οἱ μοιχοὶ δὲ διὰ τὴν
 12 ἐπιθυμίαν τολμηρὰ πολλὰ δρώσιν.) [οὐ δὴ ἔστιν
 ἀνδρεία τὰ δι' ἀλγηδόνας ἢ θυμοῦ ἐξελαυνόμενα
 πρὸς τὸν κίνδυνον.]¹ φυσικωτάτη² δ' ἔοικεν ἡ
 διὰ τὸν θυμὸν εἶναι, καὶ προσλαβοῦσα προαίρεσιν³
 καὶ τὸ οὗ ἔνεκα ἀνδρεία εἶναι. καὶ οἱ ἄνθρωποι
 δὲ ὀργιζόμενοι μὲν ἀλγοῦσι, τιμωρούμενοι δ' ἡδον-
 ται· οἱ δὲ διὰ ταῦτα μαχόμενοι μάχιμοι μὲν, οὐκ
 ἀνδρεῖοι δέ· οὐ γὰρ διὰ τὸ καλὸν οὐδ' ὡς ὁ λόγος,
 13 ἀλλὰ διὰ πάθος³ παραπλήσιον δ' ἔχουσί τι.—οὐδὲ
 δὴ οἱ εὐέλπιδες ὄντες ἀνδρεῖοι· διὰ γὰρ τὸ πολ-
 10 λάκις καὶ πολλοὺς νενικηκέναι θαρροῦσιν ἐν τοῖς
 κινδύνοις. παρόμοιοι δέ, ὅτι ἄμφω θαρραλέοι·
 ἀλλ' οἱ μὲν ἀνδρεῖοι διὰ τὰ πρότερον εἰρημένα θαρ-
 ραλέοι, οἱ δὲ διὰ τὸ οἶεσθαι κρείττους εἶναι καὶ
 14 μηθὲν ἂν παθεῖν⁴ (τοιούτων δὲ ποιούσι καὶ οἱ
 μεθυσκόμενοι, εὐέλπιδες γὰρ γίνονται). ὅταν δὲ⁵
 15 αὐτοῖς μὴ συμβῇ τοιαῦτα, φεύγουσιν· ἀνδρείου δ'
 ἦν τὰ φοβερά ἀνθρώπῳ ὄντα καὶ φαινόμενα ὑπο-
 μένειν, ὅτι καλόν, καὶ αἰσχροὺς τὸ μή. διὸ καὶ
 ἀνδρειοτέρου δοκεῖ εἶναι τὸ ἐν τοῖς αἰφνιδίοις
 φόβοις ἄφοβον καὶ ἀτάραχον εἶναι ἢ ἐν τοῖς προ-
 δήλοις· ἀπὸ ἕξεως γὰρ μᾶλλον, [ἢ καὶ]⁵ ὅτι ἦττον²⁰
 ἐκ παρασκευῆς τὰ προφανῆ μὲν γὰρ καὶ ἐκ

¹ [οὐ . . . κίνδυνον] om. K^b.

² φυσικωτάτη δ' . . . εἶναι post τι l. 9 ponenda Rassow, Susemihl (φυσικωτάτη γὰρ).

³ πάθος K^b, τὸ πάθος vulg².

⁴ ἂν παθεῖν Asp. : ἀντιπαθεῖν.

⁵ Susemihl: καὶ om. K^b.

^a See *Iliad*, xi. 558.

^b This parenthetical note does not bear on the context.

^c This sentence should apparently come at the end of the section, 'but' being amended to 'for.'

stop grazing! ^a (And adulterers also are led to do many daring things by lust.) ^b

- 12 But ^c the form of courage that is inspired by spirit seems to be the most natural, and when reinforced by deliberate choice and purpose it appears to be true Courage. And human beings also feel pain when angry, and take pleasure in revenge. But those who fight for these motives, though valiant fighters, are not courageous; for the motive of their confidence is not honour, nor is it guided by principle, but it springs from feeling. However, they show some affinity to true Courage.

- 13 (4) Nor yet again is a sanguine temperament the same thing as Courage. The sanguine are confident in face of danger because they have won many victories over many foes before. They resemble the courageous, because both are confident, but whereas the courageous are confident for the reasons already explained, the sanguine are so because they think they are stronger than the enemy, and not likely to
 14 come to any harm. (A similar boldness is shown by men who get drunk, for this makes them sanguine for the time being.) When however things do not turn out as they expect, the merely sanguine run away, whereas the mark of the courageous man, as we have seen, ^d is to endure things that are terrible to a human being and that seem so to him, because
 15 it is noble to do so and base not to do so. Hence it is thought a sign of still greater courage to be fearless and undismayed in sudden alarms than in dangers that were foreseen. Bravery in unforeseen danger springs more from character, as there is less time for preparation; one might resolve to face a

The
sanguine
temper.

^a Cf. c. vii. 2.

- λογισμοῦ καὶ λόγου τις προέλοιτο, τὰ δ' ἐξαίφνης
 16 κατὰ τὴν ἔξιν.—ἀνδρεῖοι δὲ φαίνονται καὶ οἱ
 ἀγνοοῦντες, καὶ εἰσιν οὐ πόρρω τῶν εὐελπίδων,
 χείρους δ' ὅσῳ ἀξίωμα οὐδὲν ἔχουσιν, ἐκεῖνοι δέ·
 διὸ καὶ μένουσί τινα χρόνον· οἱ δ' ἠπατημένοι, ἔαν 25
 γνῶσιν ὅτι ἕτερον ἢ ὑποπτεύσωσι, φεύγουσιν·
 ὅπερ οἱ Ἀργεῖοι ἔπαθον περιπεσόντες τοῖς Λάκωσιν
 17 ὡς Σικυωνίοις.—οἳ τε δὴ ἀνδρεῖοι εἰρηνται ποιοί
 τινες, καὶ οἱ δοκοῦντες ἀνδρεῖοι.
- ix Περὶ θάρρη δὲ καὶ φόβους ἡ ἀνδρεία οὐσα οὐχ
 ὁμοίως περὶ ἄμφω ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον περὶ τὰ 30
 φοβερά· ὁ γὰρ ἐν τούτοις ἀτάραχος καὶ περὶ ταυτ'
 ὡς δεῖ ἔχων ἀνδρείος μᾶλλον ἢ ὁ περὶ τὰ θαρραλέα.
 τῷ δὴ τὰ λυπηρὰ ὑπομένειν, ὡς εἴρηται, ἀνδρεῖοι
 2 λέγονται. διὸ καὶ ἐπίλυπον ἡ ἀνδρεία· καὶ δικαίως
 ἐπαινεῖται, χαλεπώτερον γὰρ τὰ λυπηρὰ ὑπομένειν 35
 3 ἢ τῶν ἡδέων ἀπέχεσθαι. οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ δόξειεν ἂν 1117 b
 εἶναι τὸ κατὰ τὴν ἀνδρείαν τέλος ἡδύ, ὑπὸ τῶν
 κύκλῳ δ' ἀφανίζεσθαι, οἷον κὰν τοῖς γυμνικοῖς
 ἀγῶσι γίνεται· τοῖς γὰρ πύκταις τὸ μὲν τέλος ἡδύ,
 οὐ ἔνεκα, ὁ στέφανος καὶ αἱ τιμαί, τὸ δὲ τύπτεσθαι

^a This occurred in the battle at the Long Walls of Corinth, 392 B.C. Lacedaemonian cavalry had dismounted and armed themselves with the shields of the routed Sicyonians, marked Σ (Xenophon, *Hellenica*, iv. iv. 10).

^b Cf. c. vi. 4.

^c Cf. c. vii. 6.

danger one can foresee, from calculation and on principle, but only a fixed disposition of Courage will enable one to face sudden peril.

- 16 (5) Those who face danger in ignorance also appear courageous; and they come very near to those whose bravery rests on a sanguine temperament, though inferior to them inasmuch as they lack self-confidence, which the sanguine possess. Hence the sanguine stand firm for a time; whereas those who have been deceived as to the danger, if they learn or suspect the true state of affairs, take to flight, as the Argives did when they encountered the Lacedaemonians and thought they were Sicyonians.^a

The
Courage of
Ignorance.

- 17 We have now described the characteristics both of the courageous and of those who are thought to be courageous.

- ix Courage is displayed with respect to confidence and fear, but not with respect to both equally: it is more particularly displayed in regard to objects of fear; for one who is unperturbed in the presence of terrors and comports himself rightly towards these is courageous in a fuller sense than one who does so in situations that inspire confidence. In fact, as has been said,^b men are sometimes called courageous for enduring pain. Hence Courage itself is painful; and it is justly praised, because it is harder to endure pain than to abstain from pleasure.

Courage
etl.: its
relation to
pleasure
and pain.

- 3 Not but what it would appear that the end corresponding^c to the virtue of Courage is really pleasant, only its pleasantness is obscured by the attendant circumstances. This is illustrated by the case of athletic contests: to boxers, for example, their end—the object they box for, the wreath and the honours of victory—is pleasant, but the blows they

ARISTOTLE

ἀλγεινόν, εἴπερ σάρκινοι, καὶ λυπηρόν [καί]¹ πᾶς 5
 ὁ πόνος· διὰ δὲ τὸ πολλά ταῦτ' εἶναι, μικρὸν ὄν τὸ
 4 οὐ ἔνεκα οὐδὲν ἡδὺ φαίνεται ἔχειν. εἰ δὴ τοιοῦτόν
 ἐστὶ καὶ τὸ περὶ τὴν ἀνδρείαν, ὁ μὲν θάνατος καὶ
 τὰ τραύματα λυπηρὰ τῷ ἀνδρείῳ καὶ ἄκοντι ἔσται,
 ὑπομενεῖ δὲ αὐτὰ ὅτι καλόν, ἢ ὅτι αἰσχροὺς τὸ μῆ.
 καὶ ὅσω ἂν μᾶλλον τὴν ἀρετὴν ἔχη πᾶσαν καὶ 10
 εὐδαιμονέστερος ᾖ, μᾶλλον ἐπὶ τῷ θανάτῳ λυπή-
 σεται· τῷ τοιούτῳ γὰρ μάλιστα ζῆν ἄξιον, καὶ
 οὗτος μεγίστων ἀγαθῶν ἀποστερεῖται εἰδώς· λυπη-
 ρὸν δὲ τοῦτο. ἀλλ' οὐδὲν ἦττον ἀνδρείος, ἴσως δὲ
 καὶ μᾶλλον, ὅτι τὸ ἐν τῷ πολέμῳ καλὸν αὐτ'
 5 ἐκείνων αἰρεῖται. οὐ δὴ ἐν ἀπάσαις ταῖς ἀρεταῖς 15
 τὸ ἡδέως ἐνεργεῖν ὑπάρχει, πλὴν ἐφ' ὅσον τοῦ
 6 τέλους ἐφάπτεται. στρατιώτας δ' οὐδὲν ἴσως
 κωλύει μὴ τοὺς τοιούτους κρατίστους εἶναι, ἀλλὰ
 τοὺς ἦττον μὲν ἀνδρείους, ἄλλο δ' ἀγαθὸν μηδὲν
 ἔχοντας· ἔτοιμοι γὰρ οὗτοι πρὸς τοὺς κινδύνους,
 καὶ τὸν βίον πρὸς μικρὰ κέρδη καταλλάττονται. 20
 7 περὶ μὲν οὖν ἀνδρείας ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον εἰρήσθω· τί δ'
 ἐστίν, οὐ χαλεπὸν τύπῳ γε περιλαβεῖν ἐκ τῶν
 εἰρημένων.
 x Μετὰ δὲ ταύτην περὶ σωφροσύνης λέγωμεν·
 δοκοῦσι γὰρ τῶν ἀλόγων μερῶν αὐταὶ εἶναι αἱ
 ἀρεταί. ὅτι μὲν οὖν μεσότης ἐστὶ περὶ ἡδονᾶς ἢ 25
 σωφροσύνης, εἴρηται ἡμῖν (ἦττον γὰρ καὶ οὐχ

¹ [καί] ? Richards.

^a This qualifies what was said in II. iii. 1.

^b II. vii. 3.

receive must hurt them, being men of flesh and blood, and all the labour of training is painful; and these painful incidentals are so numerous that the final object, being a small thing, appears not to
 4 contain any pleasure at all. If then the same is true of Courage, the death or wounds that it may bring will be painful to the courageous man, and he will suffer them unwillingly; but he will endure them because it is noble to do so, or because it is base not to do so. And the more complete his virtue, and the fuller the happiness he has attained, the more pain will death cause him; for he is the man to whom life is worth most, and who stands to lose the greatest goods, and knows that this is so, and this must be painful. But he is none the less courageous on that account, perhaps indeed he is more so, because he prefers glory in war to the greatest prizes of life.

5 It is not true therefore of every virtue that its active exercise is essentially pleasant, save in so far as it attains its end.^a

6 No doubt it is possible that such men as these do not make the best professional soldiers, but men who are less courageous, and have nothing of value besides life to lose; for these face danger readily, and will barter their lives for trifling gains.

7 Let this suffice as an account of Courage: from what has been said it will not be difficult to form at all events a rough conception of its nature.

x After Courage let us speak of Temperance; for these appear to be the virtues of the irrational parts
 of the soul. Temperance
and
Profligacy.

Now we have said^b that Temperance is the observance of the mean in relation to pleasures

ARISTOTLE

ὁμοίως ἐστὶ περὶ τὰς λύπας). ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς δὲ
 καὶ ἡ ἀκολασία φαίνεται. περὶ ποίας οὖν τῶν
 2 ἡδονῶν, νῦν ἀφορίσωμεν. διηγήσθωσαν δὴ¹ αἱ
 ψυχικαὶ καὶ αἱ σωματικαί, οἷον φιλοτιμία, φιλο-
 μάθεια· ἐκάτερος γὰρ τούτων χαίρει οὗ φιλητικός³⁰
 ἐστὶν οὐθὲν πάσχοντος τοῦ σώματος, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον
 τῆς διανοίας· οἱ δὲ περὶ τὰς τοιαύτας ἡδονὰς οὔτε
 σώφρονες οὔτε ἀκόλαστοι λέγονται. ὁμοίως δ'
 οὐδ' οἱ περὶ τὰς ἄλλας ὅσαι μὴ σωματικαὶ εἰσιν·
 τοὺς γὰρ φιλομύθους καὶ διηγητικούς καὶ περὶ τῶν
 τυχόντων κατατρίβοντας τὰς ἡμέρας ἀδολέσχας,³⁵
 ἀκολάστους δ' οὐ λέγομεν, οὐδὲ τοὺς λυπουμενούς¹¹¹⁸·
 3 ἐπὶ χρήμασιν ἢ φίλοις. περὶ δὴ² τὰς σωματικὰς
 εἴη ἂν ἡ σωφροσύνη, οὐ πάσας δὲ οὐδὲ ταύτας· οἱ
 γὰρ χαίροντες τοῖς διὰ τῆς ὄψεως, οἷον χρώμασι
 καὶ σχήμασι καὶ γραφῇ, οὔτε σώφρονες οὔτε ἀ-
 κόλαστοι λέγονται· καίτοι δόξειεν ἂν εἶναι καὶ ὥς⁵
 δεῖ χαίρειν καὶ τούτοις, καὶ καθ' ὑπερβολὴν καὶ
 4 ἔλλειψιν. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς περὶ τὴν ἀκοήν·
 τοὺς γὰρ ὑπερβεβλημένως χαίροντας μέλεσιν ἢ
 ὑποκρίσει αὐθεὶς ἀκολάστους λέγει, οὐδὲ τοὺς ὥς
 5 δεῖ^α σώφρονας. οὐδὲ τοὺς περὶ τὴν ὁσμὴν, πλὴν
 κατὰ συμβεβηκός· τοὺς γὰρ χαίροντας μῆλων ἢ¹⁰
 ῥόδων ἢ θυμιαμάτων ὁσμαῖς οὐ λέγομεν ἀκολάστους

¹ δὴ Bonitz : δέ.

² δὴ Sussemlhl (et fort. Asp.) : δέ.

^a i.e., by association.

(for it is concerned only in a lesser degree and in a different way with pains); and Profligacy also is displayed in the same matters. Let us then now define the sort of pleasures to which these qualities are related.

2 ' Now we must make a distinction between pleasures of the body and pleasures of the soul. Take for instance ambition, or love of learning: the lover of honour or of learning takes pleasure in the thing he loves without his body being affected at all; the experience is purely mental. But we do not speak of men as either temperate or profligate in relation to the pleasures of ambition and of learning. Nor similarly can these terms be applied to the enjoyment of any of the other pleasures that are not bodily pleasures: those who love hearing marvellous tales and telling anecdotes, and who spend their days in trivial gossip, we call idle chatterers, but not profligates; nor do we call men profligate who feel excessive pain for the loss of fortune or friends.

3 Temperance therefore has to do with the pleasures of the body. But not with all even of these; for men who delight in the pleasures of the eye, in colours, forms and paintings, are not termed either temperate or profligate, although it would be held that these things also can be enjoyed ~~in~~ the right
4 manner, or too much, or too little. Similarly with the objects of hearing: no one would term profligate those who take an excessive pleasure in music, or the theatre, nor temperate those who enjoy them as
5 is right. Nor yet does Temperance apply to enjoyment of the sense of smell, unless accidentally^a; we do not call those who are fond of the scent of fruit or roses or incense profligate, though we may

ARISTOTLE

ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον τοὺς μύρων καὶ ὄψων· χαίρουσι γὰρ
 τούτοις οἱ ἀκόλαστοι, ὅτι διὰ τούτων ἀνάμνησις
 6 γίνεται αὐτοῖς τῶν ἐπιθυμητῶν.¹ ἴδοι δ' ἄν τις
 καὶ τοὺς ἄλλους, ὅταν πεινώσι, χαίροντας ταῖς 15
 τῶν βρωμάτων ὁσμαῖς· τὸ δὲ τοιούτοις χαίρειν
 7 ἀκόλαστον· τούτῳ γὰρ ἐπιθυμητὰ² ταῦτα. οὐκ
 ἔστι δὲ οὐδὲ³ τοῖς ἄλλοις ζώοις κατὰ ταύτας τὰς
 αἰσθήσεις ἡδονὴ πλὴν κατὰ συμβεβηκός· οὐδὲ γὰρ
 ταῖς ὁσμαῖς τῶν λαγῶν αἱ κύνες χαίρουσιν, ἀλλὰ
 τῇ βρώσει· τὴν δ' αἰσθῆσιν ἡ ὁσμὴ ἐποίησεν. οὐδ' 20
 ὁ λέων τῇ φωνῇ τοῦ βοός, ἀλλὰ τῇ ἐδωδῇ· ὅτι δ'
 ἐγγύς ἐστι, διὰ τῆς φωνῆς ἦσθετο, καὶ χαίρειν δὴ
 ταύτῃ φαίνεται. ὁμοίως δ' οὐδ' ἰδὼν “ ἢ [εὐρών]⁴
 8 ἔλαφον ἢ ἄγριον αἶγα,” ἀλλ' ὅτι βορὰν ἔξει. περὶ
 τὰς τοιαύτας δὴ ἡδονὰς ἢ σωφροσύνη καὶ ἡ ἀ-
 κολασία ἐστὶν ὦν καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ ζῶα κοινωνεῖ, ὅθεν 25
 ἀνδραποδώδεις καὶ θηριώδεις φαίνονται· αὐταὶ δ'
 9 εἰσὶν ἀφή καὶ γεῦσις. φαίνονται δὲ⁵ καὶ τῇ γεύσει
 ἐπὶ μικρὸν ἢ οὐθὲν χρῆσθαι· τῆς γὰρ γεύσεως
 ἐστὶν ἡ κρίσις τῶν χυμῶν, ὅπερ ποιοῦσιν οἱ τοὺς
 οἴνους δοκιμάζοντες καὶ τὰ ὄψα ἀρτύοντες· οὐ
 πάνυ δὲ χαίρουσι τούτοις, ἢ οὐχ οἷ γε ἀκόλαστοι, 30
 ἀλλὰ τῇ ἀπολαύσει, ἢ γίνεται πᾶσα δι' ἀφῆς καὶ
 ἐν_σιτίοις—καὶ ἐν ποτοῖς καὶ τοῖς ἀφροδισίοις λε-
 10 γομένοις. διὸ καὶ ἠῤῥατό τις⁶ ὀψοφάγος ὦν τὸν

¹ ἐπιθυμητῶν ΓΟ^b: ἐπιθυμημάτων K^b, ἐπιθυμιῶν L^b.

² ἐπιθυμητὰ H^aN^bO^b: ἐπιθυμήματα K^bL^bM^b: ἐπιθυμητὸν τοῦτο Γ.

³ οὐδ' ἐν K^b Γ.

⁴ Bywater.

⁵ δὲ Asp.: δὴ.

⁶ post τις add. Φιλόξενος ὁ Ἐρύξειος K^b Γ.

^a The text here is doubtful, and possibly the whole of § 6 is an interpolation.

^b i.e., by association.

^c *Iliad*, iii. 24.

^a Apparently a character of comedy, though later writers

- be inclined so to style those who love perfumes and the smell of savoury dishes, for the profligate take pleasure in these odours because they remind them
6 of the objects of their desires. One may notice that other persons too like the smell of food when they are hungry ; but to delight in things of this kind is a mark of the profligate, since they are the things on which the profligate's desires are set.^a
- 7 Nor do the lower animals derive any pleasure from these senses, except accidentally.^b Hounds do not take pleasure in scenting hares, but in eating them ; the scent merely made them aware of the hare. The lion does not care about the lowing of the ox, but about devouring it, though the lowing tells him that the ox is near, and consequently he appears to take pleasure in the sound. Similarly he is not pleased by the sight of ' or stag or mountain goat,'^c but by the prospect of a meal.
- 8 Temperance and Profligacy are therefore concerned with those pleasures which man shares with the lower animals, and which consequently appear slavish and bestial. These are the pleasures of touch and taste.
- 9 But even taste appears to play but a small part, if any, in Temperance. For taste is concerned with discriminating flavours, as is done by wine-tasters, and cooks preparing savoury dishes ; but it is not exactly the flavours that give pleasure, or at all events not to the profligate : it is actually enjoying the object that is pleasant, and this is done solely through the sense of touch, alike in eating and drinking and in what are called the pleasures
10 of sex. This is why a certain gourmand^d wished speak of him as a real person. Some mss. here insert his name, ' Hospitable, the son of Belch,' *cf.* Aristophanes, *Frogs*, 934.

ARISTOTLE

φάρυγγα αὐτῷ μακρότερον γεράνου γενέσθαι, ὡς
 11 ἡδόμενος τῇ ἀφῇ. κοινοτάτη δὴ τῶν αἰσθήσεων 1118
 καθ' ἣν ἡ ἀκολασία· καὶ δόξειεν ἂν δικαίως ἐπονεί-
 διστος εἶναι, ὅτι οὐχ ἡ ἀνθρωποὶ ἐσμεν ὑπάρχει,
 ἀλλ' ἡ ζῶα. τὸ δὴ τοιούτοις χαίρειν καὶ μάλιστα
 ἀγαπᾶν θηριῶδες· καὶ γὰρ αἱ ἐλευθεριώταται τῶν 5
 διὰ τῆς ἀφῆς ἡδονῶν ἀφήρηνται, οἷον αἱ ἐν τοῖς
 γυμνασίοις διὰ τρίψεως καὶ τῆς θερμασίας γινώ-
 μεναι· οὐ γὰρ περὶ πᾶν τὸ σῶμα ἡ τοῦ ἀκολάστου
 ἀφῆ, ἀλλὰ περὶ τινα μέρη.

xi Τῶν δ' ἐπιθυμιῶν αἱ μὲν κοινὰ δοκοῦσιν εἶναι,
 αἱ δ' ἴδιοι καὶ ἐπίθετοι. οἷον ἡ μὲν τῆς τροφῆς
 φυσικῆ· πᾶς γὰρ ἐπιθυμεῖ ὁ ἐνδεὴς ξηρᾶς ἢ ὑγρᾶς 10
 τροφῆς, ὅτε δ' ἀμφοῖν, καὶ εὐνῆς, φησὶν Ὀμηρος,
 ὁ νέος καὶ ἀκμάζων· τῆς¹ δὲ τοιαύσδε ἢ τοιαύσδε,
 οὐκέτι πᾶς, οὐδὲ τῶν αὐτῶν.² διὸ φαίνεται ἡμέτερον
 2 εἶναι. οὐ μὴν ἀλλ' ἔχει γέ τι καὶ φυσικόν· ἕτερα
 γὰρ ἑτέροις ἐστὶν ἡδέα, καὶ ἔνια πᾶσιν ἡδίω τῶν 15
 3 τυχόντων. ἐν μὲν οὖν ταῖς φυσικαῖς ἐπιθυμίαις
 ὀλίγοι ἀμαρτάνουσι καὶ ἐφ' ἓν, ἐπὶ τὸ πλεῖον· τὸ
 γὰρ ἐσθίειν τὰ τυχόντα ἢ πίνειν ἕως ἂν ὑπερ-
 πλησθῇ, ὑπερβάλλειν ἐστὶ τὸ κατὰ φύσιν τῷ
 πλήθει· ἀναπληρώσεως³ γὰρ τῆς ἐνδείας ἡ φυσικῇ
 ἐπιθυμία. διὸ λέγονται οὗτοι γαστρίμαργοι, ὡς

¹ τῆς? Bywater: τὸ.

² τῶν αὐτῶν <ἀεὶ> Richards.

³ ἀναπληρώσεως Asp. (Richards): ἀναπλήρωσις.

^a A reminiscence of *Iliad*, xxiv. 130.

^b The text should perhaps be amended to run 'nor desires the same food always.'

^c Preferences are natural because (1) men's natures vary and therefore their tastes vary, (2) some preferences are universal.

that his throat might be longer than a crane's, showing that his pleasure lay in the sensation of contact.

- 11 Hence the sense to which Profligacy is related is the most universal of the senses ; and there appears to be good ground for the disrepute in which it is held, because it belongs to us not as human beings but as animals. Therefore it is bestial to revel in such pleasures, and to like them better than any others. We do not refer to the most refined of the pleasures of touch, such as the enjoyment of friction and warm baths in the gymnasia ; the tactual pleasures of the profligate have to do with certain parts only, not with the whole of the body.

- xi Desires seem to be of two kinds, one common to all men, the other peculiar to special peoples, and adventitious. For instance, the desire for food is natural, since everyone desires solid or liquid nourishment, and sometimes both, when in need of them ; and also sexual intercourse, as Homer says,^a when young and lusty. But not everybody desires this or that particular sort of nourishment, any more than everyone desires the same particular portion of food ;^b hence a taste for this or that sort of food
Temperance
c'd. :
Common and
peculiar
tastes.
- 2 seems to be an individual peculiarity. Not but what there is also something natural in such tastes ; for different things are pleasant to different people, and there are some special delicacies which all men like better than ordinary food.^c

- 3 In the case of the natural desires, then, few men err, and in one way only, that of excess in quantity ; for to eat or drink to repletion of ordinary food and drink is to exceed what is natural in amount, since the natural desire is only to satisfy one's wants. Hence people who over-eat are called ' mad-bellies,'

ARISTOTLE

παρὰ τὸ δέον πληροῦντες αὐτήν· τοιοῦτοι δὲ 20
 4 γίνονται οἱ λίαν ἀνδραποδώδεις. περὶ δὲ τὰς
 ἰδίας τῶν ἡδονῶν πολλοὶ καὶ πολλαχῶς ἁμαρ-
 τάνουσιν· τῶν γὰρ φιλοτοιοῦτων λεγομένων ἢ τῷ¹
 χαίρειν οἷς μὴ δεῖ, ἢ τῷ² μᾶλλον ἢ ὥς οἱ πολλοί,
 ἢ μὴ ὥς³ δεῖ, κατὰ πάντα δ'⁴ οἱ ἀκόλαστοι ὑπερ-
 βάλλουσιν· καὶ γὰρ χαίρουσιν ἐνίοις οἷς οὐ δεῖ 25
 (μισητὰ γάρ), καὶ εἴ τισι δεῖ χαίρειν τῶν τοιούτων,
 5 μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ, καὶ ἢ⁵ ὥς οἱ πολλοὶ χαίρουσιν. ἡ
 μὲν οὖν περὶ τὰς ἡδονὰς ὑπερβολὴ ὅτι ἀκολασία
 καὶ ψεκτόν, δηλόν· περὶ δὲ τὰς λύπας οὐχ ὥσπερ
 ἐπὶ τῆς ἀνδρείας τῷ ὑπομένειν λέγεται σώφρων 30
 ἀκόλαστος δὲ τῷ μῇ, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἀκόλαστος τῷ
 λυπεῖσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ ὅτι τῶν ἡδέων οὐ τυγχάνει
 (καὶ τὴν λύπην δὲ ποιεῖ αὐτῷ ἡ ἡδονή), ὁ δὲ
 σώφρων τῷ μὴ λυπεῖσθαι τῇ ἀπουσίᾳ καὶ τῷ
 ἀπέχεσθαι⁶ τοῦ ἡδέος.
 6 Ὁ μὲν οὖν ἀκόλαστος ἐπιθυμεῖ τῶν ἡδέων 1119 a
 πάντων ἢ τῶν μάλιστα, καὶ ἄγεται ὑπὸ τῆς
 ἐπιθυμίας ὥστε ἀντὶ τῶν ἄλλων ταυτ' αἰρεῖσθαι·
 διὸ καὶ λυπεῖται καὶ ἀποτυγχάνων καὶ ἐπιθυμῶν,
 μετὰ λύπης γὰρ ἡ ἐπιθυμία· ἀτόπῳ δ' ἔοικε τὸ 5
 7 δι' ἡδονὴν λυπεῖσθαι. ἐλλείποντες δὲ περὶ τὰς
 ἡδονὰς καὶ ἡττον ἢ δεῖ χαίροντες οὐ πάνυ γίνονται·

¹ τὸ M^bO^b.² τὸ O^b.³ ἢ μὴ ὅτε (vel καὶ μὴ ὥς) Richards.⁴ δὴ M^b.⁵ ἢ add. K^b.⁶ καὶ τῷ ἀπέχεσθαι om. K^b.

meaning that they fill that organ beyond the right measure ; it is persons of especially slavish nature that are liable to this form of excess.

- 4 But in regard to the pleasures peculiar to particular people, many men err, and err in many ways. For when people are said to be ' very fond of ' so-and-so, it is either because they like things that it is not right to like, or like them more than most people do, or like them in a wrong manner ; and the profligate exceed in all these ways. For they like some things that are wrong, and indeed abominable, and any such things that it is right to like they like more than is right, and more than most people.

- 5 It is clear then that excess in relation to pleasures is Profligacy, and that it is blameworthy. As regards Pains, pains on the other hand, it is not with Temperance as it is with Courage : a man is not termed temperate for enduring pain and profligate for not enduring it, but profligate for feeling more pain than is right when he fails to get pleasures (in his case pleasure actually causing pain), and temperate for not feeling pain at the absence of pleasure or at abstaining from it.

- 6 The profligate therefore desires all pleasures, or those that are the most pleasant, and is led by his desire to pursue these in preference to everything else. He consequently feels pain not only when he fails to get them, but also from his desire for them, since desire is accompanied by pain ; paradoxical though it seems that pain should be caused by pleasure.

- 7 Men erring on the side of deficiency as regards pleasures, and taking less than a proper amount of enjoyment in them, scarcely occur ; such insensibility

ARISTOTLE

οὐ γὰρ ἀνθρωπικὴ ἐστὶν ἡ τοιαύτη ἀναισθησία·
καὶ γὰρ τὰ λοιπὰ ζῶα διακρίνει τὰ βρώματα,
καὶ τοῖς μὲν χαίρει τοῖς δ' οὐ· εἰ δέ τῳ μὴθέν
ἐστὶν ἡδὺ μὴδὲ διαφέρει ἕτερον ἑτέρου, πόρρω ἂν ¹⁰
εἴη τοῦ ἀνθρώπου εἶναι· οὐ τέτευχε δ' ὁ τοιοῦτος
8 ὀνόματος διὰ τὸ μὴ πάνυ γίνεσθαι. ὁ δὲ σώφρων
μέσως περὶ ταυτ' ἔχει· οὔτε γὰρ ἡδεται οἷς
μάλιστα ὁ ἀκόλαστος, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον δυσχεραίνει,
οὔθ' ὅλως οἷς μὴ δεῖ οὔτε σφόδρα τοιούτῳ οὐδενί,
οὔτ' ἀπόντων λυπεῖται οὐδ' ἐπιθυμεῖ, ἢ μετρίως
οὐδὲ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ οὐδ' ὅτε μὴ δεῖ, οὐδ' ὅλως ¹⁵
τῶν τοιούτων οὐθέν· ὅσα δὲ πρὸς ὑγίειάν ἐστὶν
ἢ πρὸς εὐεξίαν ἡδέα ὄντα, τούτων ὀρέζεται
μετρίως καὶ ὡς δεῖ, καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἡδέων μὴ
ἐμποδίων τούτοις ὄντων ἢ παρὰ τὸ καλὸν ἢ ὑπὲρ
τὴν οὐσίαν. ὁ γὰρ οὕτως ἔχων μᾶλλον ἀγαπᾷ
τὰς τοιαύτας ἡδονὰς τῆς ἀξίας· ὁ δὲ σώφρων οὐ ²⁰
τοιοῦτος, ἀλλ' ὡς ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος.

xii Ἐκουσίῳ δὲ μᾶλλον ἔοικεν ἡ ἀκολασία τῆς
δειλίας. ἡ μὲν γὰρ δι' ἡδονήν, ἡ δὲ διὰ λύπην,
2 ὧν τὸ μὲν αἰρετόν, τὸ δὲ φευκτόν· καὶ ἡ μὲν
λύπη ἐξίστησι καὶ φθείρει τὴν τοῦ ἔχοντος φύσιν,
ἡ δὲ ἡδονὴ οὐδὲν τοιοῦτον ποιεῖ. μᾶλλον δὴ ²⁵
ἐκούσιον. διὸ καὶ ἐπονειδιστότερον· καὶ γὰρ
ἐθισθῆναι ῥᾶον πρὸς αὐτά· πολλὰ γὰρ ἐν τῷ βίῳ

¹ δὴ Argyropylos: δὲ.

is not human. Indeed, even the lower animals discriminate in food, and like some kinds and not others ; and if there be a creature that finds nothing pleasant, and sees no difference between one thing and another, it must be very far removed from humanity. As men of this type scarcely occur, we have no special name for them.

- 8 The temperate man keeps a middle course in these matters. He takes no pleasure at all in the things that the profligate enjoys most, on the contrary, he positively dislikes them ; nor in general does he find pleasure in wrong things, nor excessive pleasure in anything of this sort ; nor does he feel pain or desire when they are lacking, or only in a moderate degree, not more than is right, nor at the wrong time, *et cetera*. But such pleasures as conduce to health and fitness he will try to obtain in a moderate and right degree ; as also other pleasures so far as they are not detrimental to health and fitness, and not ignoble, nor beyond his means. The man who exceeds these limits cares more for such pleasures than they are worth. Not so the temperate man ; he only cares for them as right principle enjoins.

- xii Profligacy seems to be more voluntary than Temperance
 Cowardice. For the former is caused by pleasure, *etd* : Pro-
 the latter by pain, and pleasure is a thing we choose, fligacy more
 2 pain a thing we avoid. Also pain makes us beside voluntary
 ourselves : it destroys the sufferer's nature ; whereas than
 pleasure has no such effect. Therefore Profligacy is Cowardice.
 the more voluntary vice. And consequently it is
 the more reprehensible ; since moreover it is easier
 to train oneself to resist the temptations of pleasure,
 because these occur frequently in life, and to practise

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- τὰ τοιαῦτα, καὶ οἱ ἐθισμοὶ ἀκίνδυνοι, ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν
 3 φοβερῶν ἀνάπαλιν. δόξειε δ' ἂν οὐχ ὁμοίως
 ἐκούσιον¹ ἢ δειλία εἶναι τοῖς καθ' ἑκαστον· αὐτὴ
 μὲν γὰρ ἄλυπος, ταῦτα δὲ διὰ λύπην ἐξίστησιν,
 ὥστε καὶ τὰ ὅπλα ρίπτειν καὶ τᾶλλα ἀσχημονεῖν.³⁰
 4 διὸ καὶ δοκεῖ βίαια εἶναι. τῷ δ' ἀκολάστῳ ἀνά-
 παλιν τὰ μὲν καθ' ἑκαστα ἐκούσια, ἐπιθυμοῦντι
 γὰρ καὶ ὀρεγομένῳ, τὸ δ' ὅλον ἦττον· οὐθεὶς γὰρ
 ἐπιθυμεῖ ἀκόλαστος εἶναι.
 5 Τὸ δ' ὄνομα τῆς ἀκολασίας καὶ ἐπὶ τὰς παιδικὰς
 ἁμαρτίας φέρομεν· ἔχουσι γάρ τινα ὁμοιότητα.^{1119 b}
 πότερον δ' ἀπὸ ποτέρου καλεῖται, οὐθὲν πρὸς τὰ
 νῦν διαφέρει, δηλὸν δ' ὅτι τὸ ὕστερον ἀπὸ τοῦ προ-
 6 τέρου. οὐ κακῶς δ' ἔοικε μετενηρέχθαι· κεκο-
 λάσθαι γὰρ δεῖ τὸ τῶν αἰσχυρῶν ὀρεγόμενον καὶ
 πολλὴν αὕξησιν ἔχον, τοιοῦτον δὲ μάλιστα ἢ⁵
 ἐπιθυμία καὶ ὁ παῖς· κατ' ἐπιθυμίαν γὰρ ζῶσι
 καὶ τὰ παιδιά, καὶ μάλιστα ἐν τούτοις ἢ τοῦ ἡδέος
 ὀρεξίς· εἰ οὖν μὴ ἔσται εὐπειθὲς καὶ ὑπὸ τὸ
 7 ἄρχον, ἐπὶ πολὺ ἥξει. ἅπληστος γὰρ ἢ τοῦ
 ἡδέος ὀρεξίς καὶ πανταχόθεν τῷ ἀνοήτῳ, καὶ ἢ
 τῆς ἐπιθυμίας ἐνέργεια αὕξει τὸ συγγενές, καὶ ἂν¹⁰

¹ ἐκούσιον Γ: φευκτόν.

^a ἀκολασία, literally 'the result of not being punished,' seems to have been used of spoiled children as well as of vicious adults.

^b The primary meaning of κολάζειν, 'to punish.'

resistance to them involves no danger, whereas the reverse is the case with the objects of fear.

- 3 On the other hand, the possession of a cowardly character would seem to be more voluntary than particular manifestations of cowardice : for cowardliness in itself is not painful, but particular accesses of cowardice are so painful as to make a man beside himself, and cause him to throw away his arms or otherwise behave in an unseemly manner ; so that cowardly actions actually seem to be done
4 under compulsion. But with the profligate on the contrary the particular acts are voluntary, for they are done with desire and appetite, but the character in general is less so, since no one desires to be a profligate.

- 5 The word Profligacy ^a or wantonness we also apply to the naughtiness of children, which has some resemblance to the licentiousness of adults. Which of the two takes its name from the other is of no importance for the present enquiry, but it would seem clear that the state which comes later in life must be named from the one which comes earlier. Naughti-
ness and
Chastise-
ment.

- 6 The metaphor appears apt enough, since it is that which desires what is disgraceful and whose appetites grow apace that needs chastisement or pruning,^b and this description applies in the fullest degree to desire, as it does to the child. For children, like profligates, live at the prompting of desire ; and the appetite for pleasure is strongest in childhood, so that if it be not disciplined and made obedient
7 to authority, it will make great headway. In an irrational being the appetite for pleasure is insatiable and indiscriminating, and the innate tendency is fostered by active gratification ; indeed, if such

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μεγάλαι καὶ σφοδραὶ ὧσι, καὶ τὸν λογισμὸν
 ἐκκρούουσιν. διὸ δεῖ μετρίας εἶναι αὐτάς καὶ
 8 ὀλίγας, καὶ τῷ λόγῳ μὴθὲν ἐναντιοῦσθαι—τὸ δὲ
 τοιοῦτον εὐπειθὲς λέγομεν καὶ κεκολασμένον—,
 ὥσπερ δὲ¹ τὸν παῖδα δεῖ κατὰ τὸ πρόσταγμα τοῦ
 παιδαγωγοῦ ζῆν, οὕτω καὶ τὸ ἐπιθυμητικὸν κατὰ
 9 τὸν λόγον. διὸ δεῖ τοῦ σώφρονος τὸ ἐπιθυμητικὸν 15
 συμφωνεῖν τῷ λόγῳ· σκοπὸς γὰρ ἀμφοῖν τὸ
 καλόν, καὶ ἐπιθυμεῖ ὁ σώφρων ὧν δεῖ καὶ ὡς δεῖ
 10 καὶ ὅτε· οὕτω δὲ τάττει καὶ ὁ λόγος. ταῦτ'
 οὖν ἡμῖν εἰρήσθω περὶ σωφροσύνης.

¹ δὲ: γὰρ L^bΓ.

gratification be great and intense it actually over-
 powers the reason. Hence our indulgences should
 be moderate and few, and never opposed to principle
 8 —this is what we mean by ‘well-disciplined’ and
 ‘chastened’—; and the appetitive part of us should
 be ruled by principle, just as a boy should live in
 9 obedience to his tutor. Hence in the temperate
 man the appetitive element must be in harmony
 with principle. For the aim of both Temperance
 and principle is that which is noble ; and the temper-
 ate man desires the right thing in the right way
 at the right time, which is what principle ordains.
 10 Let this then be our account of Temperance.

Δ

i Λέγωμεν δ' ἐξῆς περὶ ἐλευθεριότητος. δοκεῖ
 δὴ¹ εἶναι² περὶ χρήματα μεσότης· ἐπαινεῖται γὰρ
 ὁ ἐλευθέριος οὐκ ἐν τοῖς πολεμικοῖς, οὐδ' ἐν οἷς
 ὁ σώφρων, οὐδ' αὖ ἐν ταῖς κρίσεσιν, ἀλλὰ περὶ ²⁵
 δόσιν χρημάτων καὶ λήψιν· μᾶλλον δ' ἐν τῇ δόσει.
 χρήματα δὲ λέγομεν πάντα ὅσων ἡ ἀξία νομί-
 2 σματι μετρεῖται. ἔστι δὲ καὶ ἡ ἀσωτία καὶ ἡ
 ἀνελευθερία περὶ χρήματα ὑπερβολαὶ καὶ ἐλλείψεις·
 3 καὶ τὴν μὲν ἀνελευθερίαν προσάπτομεν αἰεὶ τοῖς
 μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ περὶ χρήματα σπουδάζουσι, τὴν δ' ³⁰
 4 ἀσωτίαν ἐπιφέρομεν ἐνίοτε συμπλέκοντες· τοὺς
 γὰρ ἀκρατεῖς καὶ εἰς ἀκολασίαν δαπανηροὺς
 ἀσώτους καλοῦμεν· διὸ καὶ φαυλότατοι δοκοῦσιν
 5 εἶναι, πολλὰς γὰρ ἅμα κακίας ἔχουσιν. οὐ δέ³
 οἰκείως προσαγορεύονται· βούλεται γὰρ ἄσωτος
 εἶναι ὁ ἐν τι κακὸν ἔχων, τὸ φθείρειν τὴν οὐσίαν· ¹¹²⁰
 ἄσωτος γὰρ ὁ δι' αὐτὸν ἀπολλύμενος, δοκεῖ δ'
 ἀπώλειά τις αὐτοῦ εἶναι καὶ ἡ τῆς οὐσίας φθορά,
 ὥς τοῦ ζῆν διὰ τούτων ὄντος. οὕτω δὴ τὴν ἀ-

¹ δὴ Bywater: δέ.

² εἶναι ἢ K^b.

³ δὲ Γ: δὴ.

^a The word λαμβάνειν, the antithesis of 'give,' varies in meaning with the context between 'get,' 'receive' and 'take.'

^b See note on II. vii. 4.

^c ἄσωτος, 'prodigal,' means literally 'not saved,' 'in desperate case.'

BOOK IV

i NEXT let us speak of Liberality. This virtue seems to be the observance of the mean in relation to wealth : we praise a man as liberal not in war, nor in matters in which we praise him as temperate, nor in judicial decisions, but in relation to giving and getting^a wealth, and especially in giving ; wealth meaning all those things whose value is measured by money.

Bk. IV. The
Moral
Virtues
etl. : Liber-
ality.

2 Prodigality and Meanness^b on the other hand are both of them modes of excess and of deficiency in relation to wealth. Meanness is always applied to those who care more than is proper about wealth, but Prodigality is sometimes used with a wider con-
4 notation, since we call the unrestrained and those who squander money on debauchery prodigal ; and therefore prodigality is thought to be extremely
5 wicked, because it is a combination of vices. But this is not the proper application of the word : really it denotes the possessor of one particular vice, that of wasting one's substance ; for he who is ruined by his own agency is a hopeless case indeed,^c and to waste one's substance seems to be in a way to ruin oneself, inasmuch as wealth is the means of life. This then is the sense in which the term Prodigality is here understood.,

6 σωτίαν ἐκδεχόμεθα. ὦν δ' ἐστὶ χρεία, ἔστι τούτοις
 χρῆσθαι καὶ εὖ καὶ κακῶς· ὁ πλούτος δ' ἐστὶ τῶν 5
 χρησίμων· ἐκάστῳ δ' ἄριστα χρῆται ὁ ἔχων τὴν
 περὶ τοῦτο ἀρετὴν· καὶ πλούτῳ δὴ χρήσεται ἄριστα
 ὁ ἔχων τὴν περὶ τὰ χρήματα ἀρετὴν· οὗτος δ'
 7 ἐστὶν ὁ ἐλευθέριος. χρήσις δ' εἶναι δοκεῖ χρη-
 μάτων δαπάνη καὶ δόσις· ἡ δὲ λήψις καὶ ἡ φυλακὴ
 κτήσις μᾶλλον. διὸ μᾶλλον ἐστὶ τοῦ ἐλευθερίου 10
 τὸ διδόναι οἷς δεῖ ἢ λαμβάνειν ὅθεν δεῖ καὶ μὴ
 λαμβάνειν ὅθεν οὐ δεῖ. τῆς γὰρ ἀρετῆς μᾶλλον
 τὸ εὖ ποιεῖν ἢ τὸ εὖ πάσχειν, καὶ τὰ καλὰ
 8 πράττειν μᾶλλον ἢ τὰ αἰσχρὰ μὴ πράττειν· οὐκ
 ἄδηλον δ' ὅτι τῇ μὲν δόσει ἔπεται τὸ εὖ ποιεῖν
 καὶ τὰ¹ καλὰ πράττειν, τῇ δὲ λήψει τὸ εὖ πάσχειν 15
 ἢ μὴ αἰσχροπραγεῖν. καὶ ἡ χάρις τῷ διδόντι,
 οὐ τῷ μὴ λαμβάνοντι, καὶ ὁ ἔπαινος δὲ μᾶλλον.
 9 καὶ ῥᾶον δὲ τὸ μὴ λαβεῖν τοῦ δοῦναι· τὸ γὰρ
 οἰκεῖον ἦττον προΐενται μᾶλλον ἢ οὐ λαμβάνουσι τὸ
 10 ἄλλότριον. καὶ ἐλευθέριοι δὲ λέγονται οἱ διδόντες·
 οἱ δὲ μὴ λαμβάνοντες οὐκ εἰς ἐλευθεριότητα 20
 ἐπαινοῦνται, ἀλλ' οὐχ ἦττον εἰς δικαιοσύνην·
 11 οἱ δὲ λαμβάνοντες οὐδ' ἐπαινοῦνται πάνυ. φιλοῦν-
 ται δὲ σχεδὸν μάλιστα οἱ ἐλευθέριοι τῶν ἀπ'
 12 ἀρετῆς². ὠφέλιμοι γάρ· τοῦτο δ' ἐν τῇ δόσει. αἱ
 δὲ κατ' ἀρετὴν πράξεις καλαὶ καὶ τοῦ καλοῦ
 ἕνεκα· καὶ ὁ ἐλευθέριος οὖν δώσει τοῦ καλοῦ
 ἕνεκα. καὶ ὀρθῶς· οἷς γὰρ δεῖ καὶ ὅσα καὶ ὅτε, 25

¹ τὰ Noetel: τὸ.² τῶν ἀπ' ἀρετῆς om. K^b.^a i.e., those who refrain from taking more than their due.^b i.e., those who take what is their due.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. i. 6-12

- 6 Now riches are an article of use. But articles of use can be used either well or ill; and he who uses a thing best is he who possesses the virtue related to that thing. Therefore that man will use riches best who possesses the virtue related to wealth; 7 and this is the liberal man. But the use of wealth seems to consist in spending and in giving; getting wealth and keeping it are modes of acquisition rather than of use. Hence the liberal man is more concerned with giving to the right recipients than with getting wealth from the right sources and not getting it from the wrong ones. Virtue is displayed in doing good rather than in having good done to one, and in performing noble acts rather than in avoiding 8 base ones; but manifestly doing good and acting nobly go with giving, while having good done to one and avoiding base actions go with getting. Again, gratitude is bestowed on a giver, not on one who refrains from taking; and still more is this 9 true of praise. Also it is easier not to take than to give: men are more reluctant to give away what belongs to them than to refrain from taking what 10 belongs to someone else. Again, it is those who give whom we call liberal; those who refrain from taking^a are not praised for Liberty but rather for Justice, and those who take^b are not praised at all. 11 And of all virtuous people the liberal are perhaps the most beloved, because they are beneficial to others; and they are so in that they give.
- 12 Acts of virtue are noble, and are performed for the sake of their nobility; the liberal man therefore will give for the nobility of giving. And he will give rightly, for he will give to the right people, and the right amount, and at the right time, and fulfil all

Liberality
in giving.

for the
nobility of
giving.

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- 13 καὶ τὰλλα ὅσα ἔπεται τῇ ὀρθῇ δόσει. καὶ ταῦτα
 ἡδέως ἢ ἀλύπως· τὸ γὰρ κατ' ἀρετὴν ἡδὺ ἢ
 14 ἄλυπον, ἡκιστα δὲ λυπηρόν. ὁ δὲ διδοὺς οἷς μὴ
 δεῖ, ἢ μὴ τοῦ καλοῦ ἔνεκα ἀλλὰ διὰ τιν' ἄλλην
 αἰτίαν, οὐκ ἐλευθέριος ἀλλ' ἄλλος τις ῥηθήσεται·
 οὐδ' ὁ λυπηρῶς, μᾶλλον γὰρ ἔλοιτ' ἂν τὰ χρήματα 30
 τῆς καλῆς πράξεως, τοῦτο δ' οὐκ ἐλευθερίου.
 15 οὐδὲ λήψεται δὴ¹ ὅθεν μὴ δεῖ· οὐ γάρ ἐστι τοῦ
 16 μὴ τιμῶντος τὰ χρήματα ἢ τοιαύτη λήψις. οὐκ
 ἂν εἴη δὲ οὐδ' αἰτητικός· οὐ γάρ ἐστι τοῦ εἶ
 17 ποιούντος εὐχερῶς εὐεργετεῖσθαι. ὅθεν δὲ δεῖ,
 λήψεται, οἷον ἀπὸ τῶν ἰδίων κτημάτων, οὐχ ὥς 1120
 καλὸν ἀλλ' ὥς ἀναγκαῖον, ὅπως ἔχῃ διδόναι.
 οὐδ' ἀμελήσει τῶν οἰκείων,² βουλόμενός γε διὰ
 τούτων τισὶν ἐπαρκεῖν. οὐδὲ τοῖς τυχοῦσι δώσει,
 ἵνα ἔχῃ διδόναι οἷς δεῖ καὶ ὅτε καὶ οὐ καλόν.
 18 ἐλευθερίου δ' ἐστὶ σφόδρα καὶ τὸ ὑπερβάλλειν ἐν 5
 τῇ δόσει, ὥστε καταλείπειν ἑαυτῷ ἐλάττω· τὸ
 19 γὰρ μὴ βλέπειν³ ἐφ' ἑαυτὸν ἐλευθερίου. κατὰ
 τὴν οὐσίαν δ' ἢ ἐλευθεριότης λέγεται· οὐ γὰρ ἐν
 τῷ πλήθει τῶν διδομένων τὸ ἐλευθέριον, ἀλλ' ἐν τῇ
 τοῦ διδόντος ἕξει, αὕτη δὲ κατὰ τὴν οὐσίαν δίδωσιν.⁴
 οὐθὲν δὴ κωλύει ἐλευθεριώτερον εἶναι τὸν τὰ 10
 20 ἐλάττω διδόντα, εἰ ἂν ἀπ' ἐλαττόνων διδῶ. ἐλευ-

¹ δὴ Richards: δε. γ² οἰκείων L^b: ἰδίων.³ ἐπιβλέπειν L^b.⁴ δίδωσιν secludendum? Bywater.

- 13 the other conditions of right giving. Also he will
 give with pleasure, or at all events without pain ;
 for virtuous action is pleasant, or painless—it cer-
 14 tainly cannot be painful. One who gives to the
 wrong people, or not for the nobility of giving but
 from some other motive, will not be called liberal,
 but by some different title ; nor will he who gives
 with pain, for he would prefer the money to the
 noble deed, which is not the mark of a liberal man.
- 15 Consequently the liberal man will not take money Liberality in
getting.
 from a wrong source either. since one who holds
 wealth in low esteem is not the man to make improper
 16 gains. Nor yet will he be fond of asking favours,
 for one who confers benefits does not readily accept
 17 them. But he will acquire wealth from proper
 sources, for example, from his own possessions, not
 because he thinks it is a noble thing to do, but
 because it is a necessary condition of having the
 means to give. He will not be careless of his
 property, inasmuch as he wishes to employ it for
 the assistance of others. He will not give in-
 discriminately, in order that he may be able to give
 to the right persons and at the right time, and where
 18 it is noble to do so. But the liberal man is certainly
 prone to go to excess in giving, so as to leave himself
 the smaller share ; for it is a mark of a liberal nature
 to be regardless of self.
- 19 In crediting people with Liberality their resources Liberality
proportion-
ate to
resources.
 must be taken into account ; for the liberality of a
 gift does not depend on its amount, but on the dis-
 position of the giver, and a liberal disposition gives
 according to its means. It is therefore possible
 that the smaller giver may be the more liberal, if
 20 he give from smaller means. Men who have inherited

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θεριώτεροι δὲ εἶναι δοκοῦσιν οἱ μὴ κτησάμενοι
 ἀλλὰ παραλαβόντες τὴν οὐσίαν· ἄπειροί τε γὰρ
 τῆς ἐνδείας, καὶ πάντες ἀγαπῶσι μᾶλλον τὰ
 αὐτῶν ἔργα, ὥσπερ οἱ γονεῖς καὶ οἱ ποιηταί.
 πλουτεῖν δ' οὐ ράδιον τὸν ἐλευθέριον, μήτε -λη-¹⁵
 πτικὸν ὄντα μήτε φυλακτικόν, προετικὸν δὲ καὶ
 μὴ τιμῶντα δι' αὐτὰ τὰ χρήματα ἀλλ' ἔνεκα τῆς
 21 δόσεως. διὸ καὶ ἐγκαλεῖται τῇ τύχῃ ὅτι οἱ
 μάλιστα ἄξιοι ὄντες ἥκιστα πλουτοῦσιν. συμ-
 βαίνει δ' οὐκ ἀλόγως τοῦτο· οὐ γὰρ οἶόν τε
 χρήματ' ἔχειν μὴ ἐπιμελούμενον ὅπως ἔχη,
 22 ὥσπερ οὐδ' ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων. οὐ μὲν δώσει γε οἷς²⁰
 οὐ δεῖ οὐδ' ὅτε μὴ δεῖ, οὐδ' ὅσα ἄλλα τοιαῦτα·
 οὐ γὰρ ἂν ἔτι πράττοι κατὰ τὴν ἐλευθεριότητα,
 καὶ εἰς ταῦτα ἀναλώσας οὐκ ἂν ἔχοι εἰς ἃ δεῖ
 23 ἀναλίσκειν. ὥσπερ γὰρ εἴρηται, ἐλευθερίος ἔστιν
 ὁ κατὰ τὴν οὐσίαν δαπανῶν καὶ εἰς ἃ δεῖ· ὁ δ'
 ὑπερβάλλων ἄσματος. διὸ τοὺς τυράννους οὐ λέγο-²⁵
 μεν ἄσώτους· τὸ γὰρ πλῆθος τῆς κτήσεως οὐ
 δοκεῖ ράδιον εἶναι ταῖς δόσεσι καὶ ταῖς δαπάναις
 24 ὑπερβάλλειν. τῆς ἐλευθεριότητος δὲ μεσότητος
 οὕσης περὶ χρημάτων δόσιν καὶ λήψιν, ὁ ἐλευ-
 θέριος καὶ δώσει καὶ δαπανήσει εἰς ἃ δεῖ καὶ
 ὅσα δεῖ, ὁμοίως ἐν μικροῖς καὶ μεγάλοις, καὶ³⁰
 ταῦτα ἡδέως· καὶ λήψεται δ' ὅθεν δεῖ καὶ ὅσα
 δεῖ. τῆς ἀρετῆς γὰρ περὶ ἁμφω οὕσης μεσότη-
 τος, ποιήσει ἀμφοτέρω ὥς δεῖ· ἔπεται γὰρ τῇ
 ἐπιεικεῖ δόσει ἢ τοιαύτῃ λήψις, ἢ δὲ μὴ τοιαύτῃ

- a fortune are reputed to be more liberal than those who have made one, since they have never known what it is to want; moreover everybody is specially fond of a thing that is his own creation: parents and poets show this. But it is not easy for a liberal man to be rich, since he is not good either at getting money or at keeping it, while he is profuse in spending it and values wealth not for its own sake but as a means
- 21 of giving. Hence people blame fortune because the most deserving men are the least wealthy. But this is really perfectly natural: you cannot have money, any more than anything else, without taking pains to have it.
- 22 On the other hand, the liberal man will not give to the wrong people, nor at the wrong time, and so forth, for this would not be an act of Liberality at all; and if he spent his money on the wrong objects he would not have any to spend on the right ones.
- 23 In fact, as was said before, the liberal man is one who spends in proportion to his means as well as on the right objects; while he that exceeds his means is prodigal. This is why we do not call the lavishness of princes Prodigality; because we feel that however much they spend and give away they can hardly exceed the limit of their resources.
- 24 Liberality then being the observance of the mean in the giving and getting of wealth, the liberal man will not only give and spend the right amounts on the right objects alike in small matters and in great, and feel pleasure in so doing, but will also take the right amounts, and from the right sources. For as this virtue is a mean both in giving and in getting, he will do both in the right way. Right getting goes with right giving, wrong getting is opposed to right

ἐναντία ἐστίν· αἱ μὲν οὖν ἐπόμεναι γίνονται
 ἅμα ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ, αἱ δ' ἐνανταί δῆλον ὡς οὐ. 1121
 25 εἰ δὲ παρὰ τὸ δέον καὶ τὸ καλῶς ἔχον συμβαίνει
 αὐτῷ ἀναλίσκειν, λυπήσεται, μετρίως δὲ καὶ ὡς
 δεῖ· τῆς ἀρετῆς γὰρ καὶ ἡδεσθαι καὶ λυπεῖσθαι
 26 ἐφ' οἷς δεῖ καὶ ὡς δεῖ. καὶ εὐκοινώτητος δ'
 27 ἐστὶν ὁ ἐλευθέριος εἰς χρήματα· δύναται γὰρ
 ἀδικεῖσθαι, μὴ τιμῶν γε τὰ χρήματα, καὶ μᾶλλον
 ἀχθόμενος εἴ τι δέον μὴ ἀνάλωσεν ἢ λυπούμενος
 εἰ μὴ δέον τι ἀνάλωσε, καὶ τῷ Σιμωνίδου¹ οὐκ
 28 ἀρεσκόμενος. ὁ δ' ἄσωτος καὶ ἐν τούτοις
 διαμαρτάνει· οὔτε γὰρ ἡδεται ἐφ' οἷς δεῖ οὐδὲ
 ὡς δεῖ οὔτε λυπεῖται· ἔσται δὲ προϊῶσι φανερώ-
 29 τερον. εἴρηται δὴ² ἡμῖν ὅτι³ ὑπερβολαὶ καὶ
 ἐλλείψεις εἰσὶν ἢ ἀσωτία καὶ ἢ ἀνελευθερία, καὶ
 ἐν δυσὶν, ἐν δόσει καὶ λήψει· καὶ τὴν δαπάνην
 γὰρ εἰς τὴν δόσιν τίθεμεν. ἡ μὲν οὖν ἀσωτία
 τῷ διδόναι [καὶ μὴ λαμβάνειν]⁴ ὑπερβάλλει, τῷ
 δὲ λαμβάνειν ἐλλείπει, ἡ δ' ἀνελευθερία τῷ διδόναι
 μὲν ἐλλείπει, τῷ λαμβάνειν δ' ὑπερβάλλει, πλὴν
 30 ἐν⁵ μικροῖς. τὰ μὲν οὖν τῆς ἀσωτίας οὐ πάνυ
 συνδυνάζεται (οὐ γὰρ ῥάδιον μηδαμόθεν λαμβάνοντα
 πᾶσι διδόναι· ταχέως γὰρ ἐπιλείπει ἢ οὐσία τοὺς
 ἰδιώτας διδόντας, οἷπερ καὶ δοκοῦσιν ἄσωτοι
 31 εἶναι). ἐπεὶ ὁ γε τοιοῦτος δόξειεν ἂν οὐ μικρῶ
 βελτίων εἶναι τοῦ ἀνελευθέρου. εὐίατός τε γάρ 20

¹ Σιμωνίδου? Bywater: Σιμωνίδη.

² δὴ Bywater: δ'.

³ ὅτι <καὶ>? ed.

⁴ [καὶ μὴ λαμβάνειν] Noetel, om L^b.

⁵ ἐν L^b, ἐπὶ K^b.

^a Several parsimonious aphorisms, sincere or ironical, are ascribed to Simonides, but none exactly fits this allusion.

^b See § 2.

^c These words seem to be interpolated.

^d Cf. § 23 above.

giving ; the two concordant practices therefore may be found in the same person, but the two opposite ones clearly cannot be.

25 If the liberal man should happen to spend in a manner contrary to what is right and noble, he will feel pain, though in a moderate degree and in the right manner ; for it is a mark of virtue to feel both pleasure and pain on the right occasions and in the

26 right manner. Also the liberal man is an easy person
27 to deal with in money matters ; he can be cheated, because he does not value money, and is more distressed if he has paid less than he ought than he is annoyed if he has paid more : he does not agree with the saying of Simonides.^a

28 The prodigal on the other hand errs in his feelings with regard to money as well as in his actions ; he neither feels pleasure nor pain on the right occasions nor in the right manner. This will become clearer as we proceed.

29 We have said ^b then that Prodigality and Mean-
ness are modes of excess and of deficiency, and this in two things, giving and getting—giving being taken to include spending. Prodigality exceeds in giving [without getting ^c], and is deficient in getting ; Meanness falls short in giving and goes to excess
30 in getting, except in trifling matters. Now the two forms of Prodigality are very seldom found united in the same person, because it is not easy to give to everyone without receiving from anyone : the giver's means are soon exhausted, if he is a private citizen, and only such persons are considered prodigal.^d

31 In fact, a man who is prodigal in both ways may be thought considerably superior to the mean man ; for he is easily cured by age or by poverty, and is

ἐστι καὶ ὑπὸ τῆς ἡλικίας καὶ ὑπὸ τῆς ἀπορίας,
 καὶ ἐπὶ τὸ μέσον δύναται ἐλθεῖν· ἔχει γὰρ τὰ τοῦ
 ἐλευθερίου· καὶ γὰρ δίδωσι καὶ οὐ λαμβάνει,
 οὐδέτερον δ' ὥς δεῖ οὐδ' εὔ. εἰ δὴ τοῦτο ἐβισθείη
 ἢ πως ἄλλως μεταβάλοι, εἴη ἂν ἐλευθέριος· δώσει
 γὰρ οἷς δεῖ, καὶ οὐ¹ λήψεται ὅθεν οὐ¹ δεῖ. διὸ ²⁵
 καὶ δοκεῖ οὐκ εἶναι φαῦλος τὸ ἦθος· οὐ γὰρ μοχ-
 θηροῦ οὐδ' ἀγεννοῦς τὸ ὑπερβάλλειν διδόντα καὶ
³² μὴ λαμβάνοντα, ἡλιθίου δέ. ὁ δὴ² τοῦτον τὸν
 τρόπον ἄσματος πολὺ δοκεῖ βελτίων τοῦ ἀνελευθέρου
 εἶναι διὰ τε τὰ εἰρημένα, καὶ ὅτι ὁ μὲν ὠφελεῖ
³³ πολλούς, ὁ δὲ οὐθένα, ἀλλ' οὐδ' αὐτόν. ἀλλ' οἱ ³⁰
 πολλοὶ τῶν ἀσώτων, καθάπερ εἴρηται, καὶ λαμ-
 βάνουσιν ὅθεν μὴ δεῖ, καὶ εἰσὶ κατὰ τοῦτο ἀνελεύ-
³⁴ θεροι. ληπτικοὶ δὲ γίνονται διὰ τὸ βούλεσθαι
 μὲν ἀναλίσκειν, εὐχερῶς δὲ τοῦτο ποιεῖν μὴ δύ-
 νασθαι, ταχὺ γὰρ ἐπιλείπει αὐτοὺς τὰ ὑπάρχοντα·
 ἀναγκάζονται οὖν ἐτέρωθεν πορίζειν. ἅμα δὲ καὶ ^{1121 b}
 διὰ τὸ μηθὲν τοῦ καλοῦ φροντίζειν ὀλιγώρως καὶ
 πάντοθεν λαμβάνουσιν· διδόναι γὰρ ἐπιθυμοῦσι, τὸ
³⁵ δὲ πῶς ἢ πόθεν οὐθὲν αὐτοῖς διαφέρει. διόπερ
 οὐδ' ἐλευθέριοι αἱ δόσεις αὐτῶν εἰσὶν· οὐ γὰρ
 καλαί, οὐδὲ τούτου³ ἕνεκα, οὐδὲ ὥς δεῖ· ἀλλ' ⁵
 ἐνίοτε οὖς δεῖ πένεσθαι, τούτους πλουσίους ποιοῦσι,
 καὶ τοῖς μὲν μετρίοις τὰ ἥθη οὐδὲν ἂν δοῖεν, τοῖς
 δὲ κόλαξιν ἢ τιν' ἄλλην ἡδονὴν πορίζουσι πολλὰ.
 διὸ καὶ ἀκόλαστοι αὐτῶν εἰσὶν οἱ πολλοί· εὐχερῶς
 γὰρ ἀναλίσκοντες καὶ εἰς τὰς ἀκολασίας δαπανηροί

¹ οὐ bis om. K^bΓ.² δὴ ed. : δέ.³ τούτου K^b : τούτου αὐτοῦ L^bΓ.

able to be brought to the due mean, because he possesses the essentials of the liberal character—he gives, and he refrains from taking, though he does neither in the proper way or rightly. Correct this by training, or otherwise reform him, and he will be liberal, for he will now give his money to the right objects, while he will not get it from the wrong sources. This is why he is felt to be not really bad in character; for to exceed in giving without
32 getting is foolish rather than evil or ignoble. The prodigal of this type therefore seems to be much superior to the mean man, both for the reasons stated, and because the former benefits many people, but the latter benefits nobody, not even himself.

33 But the majority of prodigal people, as has been said, besides giving wrongly, take from wrong sources;
34 in respect of getting they are in fact mean. And what makes them grasping is that they want to spend, but cannot do so freely because they soon come to the end of their resources, and so are compelled to obtain supplies from others. Moreover, being indifferent to nobility of conduct, they are careless how they get their money, and take it from anywhere; their desire is to give, and they do not mind how or where they get the means of giving.

35 Hence even their giving is not really liberal: their gifts are not noble, nor given for the nobility of giving, nor in the right way; on the contrary, sometimes they make men rich who ought to be poor, and will not give anything to the worthy, while heaping gifts on flatterers and others who minister to their pleasures. Hence most prodigal men are also profligate; for as they spend their money freely, some of it is squandered in debauchery;

εἰσι, καὶ διὰ τὸ μὴ πρὸς τὸ καλὸν ζῆν πρὸς τὰς 10
 36 ἡδονὰς ἀποκλίνουσιν. ὁ μὲν οὖν ἄσωτος ἀπαιδ-
 αγωγῆτος γενόμενος εἰς ταῦτα μεταβαίνει, τυχὼν
 δ' ἐπιμελείας εἰς τὸ μέσον καὶ τὸ δέον ἀφίκοιτ'
 37 ἄν. ἡ δ' ἀνελευθερία ἀνιάτος τ'¹ ἐστίν (δοκεῖ
 γὰρ τὸ γῆρας καὶ πᾶσα ἀδυναμία ἀνελευθέρους
 ποιεῖν), καὶ συμφυέστερον τοῖς ἀνθρώποις τῆς 15
 38 ἀσωτίας· οἱ γὰρ πολλοὶ φιλοχρήματοι μᾶλλον ἢ
 39 δοτικοί. καὶ διατείνει δ' ἐπὶ πολὺ, καὶ πολυειδές
 ἐστίν· πολλοὶ γὰρ τρόποι δοκοῦσι τῆς ἀνελευθερίας
 εἶναι. ἐν δυσὶ γὰρ οὖσα, τῇ τ' ἐλλείψει τῆς
 δόσεως καὶ τῇ ὑπερβολῇ τῆς λήψεως, οὐ πᾶσιν
 ὁλόκληρος παραγίνεται, ἀλλ' ἐνίοτε χωρίζεται, 20
 καὶ οἱ μὲν τῇ λήψει ὑπερβάλλουσιν, οἱ δὲ τῇ
 39 δόσει ἐλλείπουσιν. οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἐν ταῖς τοιαύταις
 προσηγορίαις οἷον φειδωλοὶ γλίσχροι κίμβικες,
 πάντες τῇ δόσει ἐλλείπουσι, τῶν δ' ἄλλοτρίων
 οὐκ ἐφίενται οὐδὲ βούλονται λαμβάνειν, οἱ μὲν
 διὰ τινὰ ἐπιείκειαν καὶ εὐλάβειαν τῶν αἰσχυρῶν
 (δοκοῦσι γὰρ ἔνιοι ἢ φασί γε διὰ τοῦτο φυλάττειν, 25
 ἵνα μὴ ποτ' ἀναγκασθῶσιν αἰσχυρόν τι πράξαι·
 τοῦτων δὲ καὶ ὁ κυμνοπρίστης καὶ πᾶς ὁ τοιοῦτος·
 ὠνόμασται δ' ἀπὸ τῆς ὑπερβολῆς τοῦ μηθὲν² ἂν
 δοῦναι), οἱ δ' αὖ διὰ φόβον ἀπέχονται τῶν ἄλλο-
 τρίων ὥς οὐ ῥᾶδιον αὐτὸν μὲν τὰ ἐτέρων λαμ- 30
 βάνειν, τὰ δ' αὐτοῦ ἐτέρους μὴ· ἀρέσκειν³ οὖν

¹ τ' Bywater: γ' K^b, om. vulg.

² μηθενὶ O^bΓ.

³ ἀρέσκειν. ἀρέσκει Γ.

and having no high moral standard they readily yield to the temptation of pleasure.

- 36 This then is what the prodigal comes to if he is not brought under discipline ; but if he is taken in hand, he may attain the due mean and the right
- 37 scale of liberality. Meanness on the contrary is incurable ; for we see that it can be caused by old age or any form of weakness. Also it is more ingrained in man's nature than Prodigality ; the mass of mankind are avaricious rather than open-
- 38 handed. Moreover Meanness is a far-reaching vice, and one of varied aspect : it appears to take several shapes. For as it consists in two things, deficiency in giving and excess in getting, it is not found in its entirety in every case, but sometimes the two forms occur separately, some men going too far in getting,
- 39 while others fall short in giving. The characters described by such names as niggardly, close-fisted, and miserly all fall short in giving, but they do not covet the goods of others nor wish to take them. With some of them this is due to an honourable motive of a sort, namely a shrinking from base conduct—since some persons are thought, or at all events profess, to be careful of their money because they wish to avoid being forced at some time or other to do something base ; to this class belong the skinflint ^a and similar characters, who get their names from an excessive reluctance to give. But some keep their hands off their neighbours' goods from fear ; they calculate that it is not easy to take what belongs to others without others taking what belongs to oneself, and so they ' prefer (as they say)

^a *κυμνοπρίστης* means literally, 'one who saws cummin-seed in half.'

- 40 αὐτοῖς τὸ μήτε λαμβάνειν μήτε διδόναι. οἱ δ' αὖ κατὰ τὴν λήψιν ὑπερβάλλουσι τῷ πάντοθεν λαμβάνειν καὶ πᾶν, οἷον οἱ τὰς ἀνελευθέρους ἐργασίας ἐργαζόμενοι, πορνοβοσκοὶ καὶ πάντες οἱ τοιοῦτοι, καὶ τοκισταὶ κατὰ μικρὰ¹ ἐπὶ πολλῶ· πάντες γὰρ οὗτοι ὅθεν οὐ δεῖ λαμβάνουσι, καὶ 1122 a
- 41 ὅπόσον οὐ δεῖ. κοινὸν δ' ἐπ' αὐτοῖς ἡ αἰσχροκέρδεια φαίνεται· πάντες γὰρ ἔνεκα κέρδους, καὶ τούτου 42 μικροῦ, ὀνειδῆ ὑπομένουσιν. τοὺς γὰρ τὰ μεγάλα μὴ ὅθεν δὲ δεῖ λαμβάνοντας, μηδὲ ἃ δεῖ, οὐ λέγομεν ἀνελευθέρους, οἷον τοὺς τυράννους πόλεις 5 πορθοῦντας καὶ ἱερὰ συλῶντας, ἀλλὰ πονηροὺς 43 μᾶλλον καὶ ἀσεβεῖς καὶ ἀδίκους. ὁ μέντοι κυβευτῆς καὶ ὁ² λωποδύτης καὶ ὁ ληστής τῶν ἀνελευθέρων εἰσίν· αἰσχροκερδεῖς γάρ· κέρδους γὰρ ἔνεκεν ἀμφότεροι πραγματεύονται καὶ ὀνειδῆ ὑπομένουσιν, καὶ οἱ μὲν κινδύνους τοὺς μεγίστους 10 ἔνεκα τοῦ λήμματος, οἱ δ' ἀπὸ τῶν φίλων κερδαίνουσιν, οἷς δεῖ διδόναι· ἀμφότεροι δὲ ὅθεν οὐ δεῖ κερδαίνειν βουλόμενοι αἰσχροκερδεῖς. καὶ πᾶσαι 44 δὴ αἱ τοιαῦται λήψεις ἀνελεύθεροι. εἰκότως δὲ τῇ ἐλευθεριότητι ἀνελευθερία ἐναντίον λέγεται· μείζον τε, γάρ ἐστι κακὸν τῆς ἀσωτίας, καὶ 15 μᾶλλον ἐπὶ ταύτην ἀμαρτάνουσιν ἢ κατὰ τὴν 45 λεχθεῖσαν ἀσωτίαν. περὶ μὲν οὖν ἐλευθεριότητος καὶ τῶν ἀντικειμένων κακιῶν τοσαύτ' εἰρήσθω.

¹ κατὰ μικρὰ Asp. : κατὰ μικρὸν pr. K^bM^b, καὶ τὰ μικρὰ corr. K^bL^bΓ.

² ὁ om. K^b, καὶ ὁ ληστής om. (ut videtur) Asp. ; fort. et haec et illud secludenda ed.

- 40 neither to take nor to give.' The other sort of people are those who exceed in respect of getting, taking from every source and all they can ; such are those who follow degrading trades, brothel-keepers and all people of that sort, and petty usurers who lend money in small sums at a high rate of interest ; all these take from wrong sources, and more than their
41 due. The common characteristic of all these seems to be sordid greed, since they all endure reproach
42 for gain, and for a small gain. Those who make improper gains from improper sources on a great scale, for instance princes who sack cities and rob temples, are not termed mean, but rather wicked
43 or impious or unjust. But the dicer and the foot-pad or brigand are to be classed as mean, as showing sordid greed, for both ply their trade and endure reproach for gain, the robber risking his life for plunder, and the dicer making gain out of his friends, to whom one ought to give ; hence both are guilty of sordid greed, trying as they do to get gain from wrong sources. And all similar modes of getting wealth are mean for the same reasons.
- 44 Meanness is naturally spoken of as the opposite of Liberality ; for not only is it a greater evil than Prodigality, but also men more often err on the side of Meanness than on that of Prodigality as we defined it.^a
- 45 Let this suffice as an account of Liberality and of the vices which are opposed to it.

^a See § 5.

- ii Δόξειε δ' ἂν ἀκόλουθον εἶναι καὶ περὶ μεγαλο-
 πρεπείας διελθεῖν· δοκεῖ γὰρ καὶ αὕτη¹ περὶ
 χρήματά τις ἀρετὴ εἶναι. οὐχ ὥσπερ δ' ἡ ἐλευ- 20
 θεριότης διατείνει περὶ πάσας τὰς ἐν χρήμασι
 πράξεις, ἀλλὰ περὶ τὰς δαπανηρὰς μόνον· ἐν
 τούτοις² δ' ὑπερέχει τῆς ἐλευθεριότητος μεγέθει·
 καθάπερ γὰρ τοῦνομα αὐτὸ ὑποσημαίνει, ἐν
 2 μεγέθει πρέπουσα δαπάνη ἐστίν. τὸ δὲ μέγεθος
 πρὸς τι· οὐ γὰρ τὸ αὐτὸ δαπάνημα τριηράρχω
 3 καὶ ἀρχιθεωρῶ. τὸ πρέπον δὴ πρὸς αὐτόν, καὶ 25
 ἐν ᾧ καὶ περὶ ὅ.³ ὁ δ' ἐν μικροῖς ἢ ἐν μετρίοις
 κατ' ἀξίαν δαπανῶν οὐ λέγεται μεγαλοπρεπής,
 οἷον τὸ “πολλάκι δόσκον ἀλήτη”· ἀλλ' ὁ ἐν
 μέγαλοις οὕτως.⁴ ὁ μὲν γὰρ μεγαλοπρεπὴς ἐλευ-
 θέριος, ὁ δ' ἐλευθέριος οὐθὲν μᾶλλον μεγαλοπρεπής.
 4 τῆς τοιαύτης δ' ἕξως ἡ μὲν ἔλλειψις μικροπρέπεια 30
 καλεῖται, ἡ δ' ὑπερβολὴ βαναυσία καὶ ἀπειροκαλία
 καὶ ὅσαι τοιαῦται, οὐχ ὑπερβάλλουσαι τῷ μεγέθει
 περὶ ἃ δεῖ, ἀλλ' ἐν οἷς οὐ δεῖ καὶ ὥς οὐ δεῖ λαμ-
 5 πρυνόμεναι· ὕστερον δὲ ὑπὲρ⁵ αὐτῶν ἐροῦμεν. ὁ

¹ αὕτη Coraes, αὐτὴ codd.

² ταύταις ? ed.

³ ἅ Γ Asp., ἅ <καὶ ὡς> Thurot.

⁴ οὕτως M^b: οὕτος (τοιούτος ? Richards).

⁵ ὑπὲρ: περὶ O^b.

^a μεγαλοπρέπεια denotes Munificence of a splendid kind, the spending of money on a grand scale from the motive of public spirit. In discussing it Aristotle is thinking especially of the *λητουργίαι* or public services discharged at Athens, and in other Greek cities, by wealthy individuals; such as the refitting of a naval trireme, the equipment of a dramatic chorus, and the defraying of the cost of a *theoria* or delegation representing the State at one of the great Hellenic festivals. The word literally means 'great con-

- ii Next it would seem proper to discuss Magnificence,^a for this also appears to be a virtue concerned with wealth. It does not however, like Liberality, extend to all actions dealing with wealth, but only refers to the spending of wealth; and in this sphere it surpasses Liberality in point of magnitude, for, as its name itself implies, it consists in suitable expenditure on a great scale.
- 2 But this greatness of scale is relative. An amount of outlay that would be great for a person fitting out a galley for the navy would not be great for
- 3 one equipping a state pilgrimage. The suitability of the expenditure therefore is relative to the spender himself, and to the occasion or object. At the same time the term magnificent is not applied to one who spends adequate sums on objects of only small or moderate importance, like the man who said 'Oft gave I alms to homeless wayfarers'^b; it denotes someone who spends suitably on great objects. For though the magnificent man is liberal, the liberal man is not necessarily magnificent.
- 4 The defect corresponding to the magnificent disposition is called Shabbiness, and the excess Vulgarity, Want of Taste or the like. The latter vices do not exceed by spending too great an amount on proper objects, but by making a great display on the wrong occasions and in the wrong way. We will however speak of them later.

Magnificence or Munificence.

spicuousness' or splendour, but in eliciting its connotation Aristotle brings in another meaning of the verb *πρέπειν*, viz. 'to be fitting,' and takes the noun to signify 'suitability on a great scale'; and also he feels that the element 'great' denotes grandeur as well as mere magnitude.

^b *Odyssey*, xvii. 420; said by Odysseus pretending to be a beggar who formerly was well-to-do.

δὲ μεγαλοπρεπῆς ἐπιστήμονι ἔοικεν· τὸ πρέπον
 γὰρ δύναται θεωρῆσαι καὶ δαπανῆσαι μεγάλα ³⁵
 6 ἐμμελῶς. (ὥσπερ γὰρ ἐν ἀρχῇ εἶπομεν, ἡ ἕξις ^{1122 b}
 ταῖς ἐνεργείαις ὀρίζεται, καὶ ὧν ἐστίν.) αἱ δὲ
 τοῦ μεγαλοπρεποῦς δαπάναι μεγάλαι καὶ πρέ-
 πουσαι. τοιαῦτα δὲ καὶ τὰ ἔργα· οὕτω γὰρ ἔσται
 μέγα δαπάνημα καὶ πρέπον τῷ ἔργῳ.¹ ὥστε τὸ
 μὲν ἔργον τῆς δαπάνης ἄξιον δεῖ εἶναι, τὴν δὲ ⁵
 7 δαπάνην τοῦ ἔργου, ἣ καὶ ὑπερβάλλειν. δα-
 πανήσει δὲ τὰ τοιαῦτα ὁ μεγαλοπρεπῆς τοῦ καλοῦ
 8 ἔνεκα· κοινὸν γὰρ τοῦτο ταῖς ἀρεταῖς. καὶ ἔτι
 ἡδέως καὶ προετικῶς· ἡ γὰρ ἀκριβολογία μικρο-
 9 πρεπές. καὶ πῶς κάλλιστον καὶ πρεπωδέστατον
 σκέψαιτ' ἂν μᾶλλον ἢ πόσου καὶ πῶς ἐλαχίστου. ¹⁰
 10 ἀναγκαῖον δὲ² καὶ ἐλευθέριον τὸν μεγαλοπρεπῆ
 εἶναι· καὶ γὰρ ὁ ἐλευθέριος δαπανήσει ἂν δεῖ καὶ
 ὡς δεῖ· ἐν τούτοις δὲ τὸ “μέγα” τοῦ “μεγαλο-
 πρεποῦς,” οἷον μέγεθος, περὶ ταῦτα³ τῆς ἐλευ-
 θεριότητος οὕσης. καὶ ἀπὸ τῆς ἴσης δαπάνης
 τὸ ἔργον ποιήσει μεγαλοπρεπέστερον· οὐ γὰρ ἡ
 αὐτὴ ἀρετὴ κτήματος καὶ ἔργου· κτῆμα μὲν γὰρ ¹⁵
 τὸ πλείστου ἄξιον τιμιώτατον, οἷον χρυσός, ἔργον
 δὲ τὸ μέγα καὶ καλόν (τοῦ γὰρ τοιούτου ἡ θεωρία

¹ τῷ ἔργῳ secludendum? ed.

² δὲ Γ.

³ ταῦτα· corr. K^b.

^a These words are better omitted: ‘suitable to the occasion’ seems to be meant.

^b See note on § 1.

^c Sc. than the vulgar man or the shabby man.

- 5 The magnificent man is an artist in expenditure :
 he can discern what is suitable, and spend great sums
 6 with good taste. (For as we said at the outset, a
 disposition is defined by the activities in which it is
 displayed, and by the objects to which it is related.)
 So the magnificent man's expenditure is suitable as
 well as great. And consequently the results he
 produces must also be suitable as well as great ;
 for so only will a great expenditure be suitable [to
 the result ^a] as well. Hence, as the result produced
 must be proportionate to the expenditure, so also
 must the expenditure be proportionate to or even
 7 exceed the result produced. Again, the motive of
 the munificent man in such expenditure will be the
 nobility of the action, this motive being character-
 8 istic of all the virtues. Moreover he will spend
 gladly and lavishly, since nice calculation is shabby ;
 9 and he will think how he can carry out his project
 most nobly and splendidly, rather than how much
 it will cost and how it can be done most cheaply.
- 10 The magnificent man will therefore necessarily be
 also a liberal man. For the liberal man too will
 spend the right amount in the right manner ; and
 it is in the amount and manner of his expenditure
 that the element ' great ' in the magnificent or
 ' greatly splendid ' ^b man, that is to say his great-
 ness, is shown, these being the things in which
 Liberality is displayed. And the magnificent man
 from an equal outlay will achieve a more magnificent
 result ^c ; for the same standard of excellence does
 not apply to an achievement as to a possession : with
 possessions the thing worth the highest price is the
 most honoured, for instance gold, but the achieve-
 ment most honoured is one that is great and noble

θαυμαστή, τὸ δὲ μεγαλοπρεπὲς θαυμαστόν)· καὶ
 ἔστιν ἔργου ἀρετὴ [μεγαλοπρέπεια]¹ ἐν μεγέθει.
 11 ἔστι δὲ τῶν δαπανημάτων οἷα λέγομεν τὰ τίμια,
 οἷον τὰ περὶ θεοῦς, ἀναθήματα καὶ κατασκευαὶ 20
 καὶ θυσίαι, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ² πᾶν τὸ δαιμόνιον,
 καὶ ὅσα πρὸς τὸ κοινὸν εὐφιλοτιμήτᾳ ἔστιν, οἷον
 εἴ που χορηγεῖν οἴονται δεῖν λαμπρῶς ἢ τριηρ-
 12 ἀρχεῖν ἢ καὶ ἔστιαν τὴν πόλιν. ἐν ᾧ αἱ δ', ὥσ-
 περ εἴρηται, καὶ πρὸς τὸν πράττοντα ἀναφέρεται,
 τὸ τίς ὢν καὶ τίνων ὑπαρχόντων· ἄξια γὰρ δεῖ 25
 τούτων εἶναι, καὶ μὴ μόνον τῷ ἔργῳ ἀλλὰ καὶ τῷ
 13 ποιῶντι πρέπειν. διὸ πένης μὲν οὐκ ἂν εἴη
 μεγαλοπρεπής· οὐ γὰρ ἔστιν ἀφ' ὧν πολλὰ
 δαπανήσῃ προπύοντως· ὁ δ' ἐπιχειρῶν ἡλίθιος·
 παρὰ τὴν ἀξίαν γὰρ καὶ τὸ δέον, κατ' ἀρετὴν δὲ
 14 τὸ ὀρθῶς. πρέπει δὲ [καὶ]³ οἷς τὰ τοιαῦτα 30
 προϋπάρχει δι' αὐτῶν ἢ διὰ τῶν προγόνων ἢ ὧν
 αὐτοῖς μέτεστιν, καὶ τοῖς εὐγενέσι καὶ τοῖς ἐν-
 δόξοις καὶ ὅσα τοιαῦτα· πάντα γὰρ ταῦτα μέγεθος
 15 ἔχει καὶ ἀξίωμα. μάλιστα μὲν οὖν τοιοῦτος ὁ
 μεγαλοπρεπής, καὶ ἐν τοῖς τοιούτοις δαπανήμασιν
 ἢ μεγαλοπρέπεια, ὥσπερ εἴρηται (μέγιστα γὰρ καὶ 35
 ἐντιμότερα)· τῶν δὲ ἰδίων ὅσα εἰσάπαξ γίνεται, 1123 :

¹ [μεγαλοπρέπεια] Muretus : ante ἀρετὴν L^b.

² περὶ pr. K^b : ὅσα περὶ.

³ Bywater.

(since a great achievement arouses the admiration of the spectator, and the quality of causing admiration belongs to magnificence); and the excellence
 11 of an achievement lies in its greatness. Now there are some forms of expenditure definitely entitled honourable, for instance expenditure on the service of the gods—votive offerings, public buildings, sacrifices—and the offices of religion generally; and those public benefactions which are favourite objects of ambition, for instance the duty, as it is esteemed in certain states, of equipping a chorus splendidly or fitting out a ship of war, or even of giving a
 12 banquet to the public. But in all these matters, as has been said, the scale of expenditure must be judged with reference to the person spending, that is, to his position and his resources; for expenditure should be proportionate to means, and suitable not
 13 only to the occasion but to the giver. Hence a poor man cannot be magnificent, since he has not the means to make a great outlay suitably; the poor man who attempts Magnificence is foolish, for he spends out of proportion to his means, and beyond what he ought, whereas an act displays virtue only
 14 when it is done in the right way. But great public benefactions are suitable for those who have adequate resources derived from their own exertions or from their ancestors or connexions, and for the high-born and famous and the like, since birth, fame and so on all have an element of greatness and distinction.
 15 The magnificent man therefore generally belongs to these classes; and Magnificence, as we have said, mostly finds an outlet in these public benefactions, since these are the greatest forms of expenditure and the ones most honoured." But Magnificence is

ARISTOTLE

- οἶον γάμος καὶ εἴ τι τοιοῦτον, καὶ εἰ περὶ τι πᾶσα
 ἢ πόλις σπουδάζει ἢ οἱ ἐν ἀξιώματι, καὶ περὶ
 ξένων δὲ ὑποδοχὰς καὶ ἀποστολάς, καὶ δωρεὰς
 καὶ ἀντιδωρεάς· οὐ γὰρ εἰς ἑαυτὸν δαπανηρὸς ὁ
 μεγαλοπρεπὴς ἀλλ' εἰς τὰ κοινά, τὰ δὲ δῶρα τοῖς ⁵
- 16 ἀναθήμασιν ἔχει τι ὅμοιον. μεγαλοπρεποῦς δὲ
 καὶ οἶκον κατασκευάσασθαι πρεπόντως τῷ πλούτῳ
 (κόσμος γάρ τις καὶ οὗτος), καὶ περὶ ταῦτα
 μᾶλλον δαπανᾶν ὅσα πολυχρόνια τῶν ἔργων
- 17 (κάλλιστα γὰρ ταῦτα), καὶ ἐν ἐκάστοις τὸ πρέπον
 (οὐ γὰρ ταῦτ' ἀρμόζει θεοῖς καὶ ἀνθρώποις, οὐδ' ¹⁰
 ἐν ἱερῷ καὶ τάφῳ). καὶ ἐπεὶ¹ τῶν δαπανημάτων
 ἕκαστον μέγα ἐν τῷ γένει, καὶ μεγαλοπρεπέστα-
 τον² μὲν τὸ ἐν μεγάλῳ μέγα, ἐνταῦθα δὲ τὸ ἐν
- 18 τούτοις μέγα, καὶ διαφέρει τὸ ἐν τῷ ἔργῳ μέγα
 τοῦ ἐν τῷ δαπανήματι (σφαῖρα μὲν γὰρ ἢ λήκυθος
 ἢ καλλίστη ἔχει μεγαλοπρέπειαν παιδικοῦ δώρου, ¹⁵
- 19 ἢ δὲ τούτου τιμὴ μικρὸν καὶ ἀνελεύθερον), διὰ
 τοῦτό ἐστι τοῦ μεγαλοπρεποῦς, ἐν ᾧ ἂν ποιῇ
 γένει, μεγαλοπρεπῶς³ ποιεῖν (τὸ γὰρ τοιοῦτον
 οὐκ εὐνυπέρβλητον) καὶ ἔχον κατ' ἀξίαν τοῦ δαπα-
 νήματος.
- 20 Τοιοῦτος μὲν οὖν ὁ μεγαλοπρεπής· ὁ δ' ὑπερ-

¹ ἐπεὶ Asp., Felicianus : ἐπὶ.

² μεγαλοπρεπέστατον <ἀπλῶς> Bywater.

³ μεγαλοπρεπὲς ? Richards.

- also shown on those private occasions for expenditure which only happen once, for instance, a wedding or the like, and which arouse the interest of the general public, or of people of position ; and also in welcoming foreign guests and in celebrating their departure, and in the complimentary interchange of presents ; for the magnificent man does not spend money on himself but on public objects, and his gifts have some
16 resemblance to votive offerings. It is also characteristic of the magnificent man to furnish his house in a manner suitable to his wealth, since a fine house is a sort of distinction ; and to prefer spending on permanent objects, because these are the most
17 noble ; and to spend an amount that is appropriate to the particular occasion, for the same gifts are not suitable for the gods and for men, and the same expenditure is not appropriate to a sacrifice and a funeral. In fact, inasmuch as the greatness of any form of expenditure varies with its particular kind, and, although the most magnificent expenditure absolutely is great expenditure on a great object, the most magnificent in a particular case is the
18 amount that is great in that case, and since the greatness of the result achieved is not the same as the greatness of the expenditure (for the finest ball or oil-flask does not cost much or involve a very liberal outlay, though it makes a magnificent present
19 for a child), it follows that it is the mark of the magnificent man, in expenditure of whatever kind, to produce a magnificent result (for that is a standard not easily exceeded), and a result proportionate to the cost.
- 20 Such then is the character of the magnificent man. His counterpart on the side of excess, the Vulgarity.

- βάλλων καὶ βάνανσος τῷ παρὰ τὸ δέον ἀναλίσκειν 20
 ὑπερβάλλει, ὥσπερ εἴρηται. ἐν γὰρ τοῖς μικροῖς
 τῶν δαπανημάτων πολλὰ ἀναλίσκει καὶ λαμπρύνεται
 παρὰ μέλος, οἷον ἐρανιστὰς γαμικῶς ἐστιῶν,
 καὶ κωμωδοῖς χορηγῶν ἐν τῇ παρόδῳ πορφύραν
 εἰσφέρων, ὥσπερ οἱ Μεγαροῖ.¹ καὶ πάντα τὰ
 τοιαῦτα ποιήσει οὐ τοῦ καλοῦ ἔνεκα, ἀλλὰ τὸν 25
 πλοῦτον ἐπιδεικνύμενος, καὶ διὰ ταῦτα² οἰόμενος
 θαυμάζεσθαι, καὶ οὗ μὲν δεῖ πολλὰ ἀναλῶσαι,
 21 ὀλίγα δαπανῶν, οὗ δ' ὀλίγα, πολλά. ὁ δὲ μικρο-
 πρεπὴς περὶ πάντα ἐλλείψει, καὶ τὰ μέγιστα
 ἀναλώσας ἐν μικρῷ τὸ καλὸν ἀπολεῖ, καὶ ὅ τι ἂν
 ποιῇ³ μέλλων, καὶ σκοπῶν πῶς ἂν ἐλάχιστον 30
 ἀναλώσαι, καὶ ταῦτ' ὀδυρόμενος, καὶ πάντ' οἰό-
 22 μενος μείζω ποιεῖν ἢ δεῖ. εἰσὶ μὲν οὖν αἱ ἕξεις
 αὐταὶ κακίαι, οὐ μὴν ὀνειδῆ γ' ἐπιφέρουσι διὰ τὸ
 μήτε βλαβεραὶ τῷ πέλας εἶναι μήτε λίαν ἀσχή-
 μονες.
- iii 'Η δὲ μεγαλοψυχία περὶ μεγάλα μὲν καὶ ἐκ τοῦ
 ὀνόματος ἔοικεν εἶναι, περὶ ποῖα δ' ἐστὶ πρῶτον 35
 2 λάβωμεν· διαφέρει δ' οὐθὲν τὴν ἕξιν ἢ τὸν κατὰ 1123 b
 3 τὴν ἕξιν σκοπεῖν. δοκεῖ δὴ⁴ μεγαλόψυχος εἶναι ὁ

¹ Μεγαροῖ Bywater: Μεγαροῖ pr. K^b, μεγαρεῖς vulg.

² τὰ τοιαῦτα K^b.

³ ποιῇ <ποιήσει>? Richards.

⁴ δὴ Bywater: δέ.

^a In the earlier scenes of the comedies of Aristophanes, the chorus appear in character as charcoal-burners, cavalymen, wasps, clouds, etc., and take part in the action of the play as such. They seem to have stripped off their outer dress for the Parabasis, or interlude, in which they address the audience on behalf of the author (*Ach.* 627, *Pax* 730). In the later scenes they tend to fall more into the position of spectators, like the chorus of tragedy; and the play usually ends with something in the nature of a triumphal procession,

- vulgar man, exceeds, as has been said, by spending beyond what is right. He spends a great deal and makes a tasteless display on unimportant occasions : for instance, he gives a dinner to his club on the scale of a wedding banquet, and when equipping a chorus at the comedies he brings it on in purple at its first entrance, as is done at Megara.^a Moreover, he does all this not from a noble motive but to show off his wealth, and with the idea that this sort of thing will make people admire him ; and he spends little where he ought to spend much and
- 21 much where he ought to spend little. The shabby Shabbiness. man on the other hand will err on the side of deficiency in everything ; even when he is spending a great deal, he will spoil the effect for a trifle, and by hesitating at every stage and considering how he can spend least, and even so grudging what he spends and always thinking he is doing things
- 22 on a greater scale than is necessary. These dispositions then are vices, but they do not bring serious discredit, since they are not injurious to others, nor are they excessively unseemly.
- iii Greatness of Soul,^b as the word itself implies, Greatness of Soul. seems to be related to great objects ; let us first
- 2 ascertain what sort of objects these are. It will make no difference whether we examine the quality itself or the person that displays the quality.
- 3 Now a person is thought to be great-souled if he
- when purple robes (like the scarlet worn by the chorus at the end of the *Eumenides* of Aeschylus) would not be inappropriate, as they would be in the opening scenes. Megarian comedy is elsewhere associated with coarse buffoonery.
- ^b μεγαλοψυχία, *magnanimitas*, means lofty pride and self-esteem rather than magnanimity or high-mindedness (in the modern sense of the word).

ARISTOTLE

μεγάλων αὐτὸν ἀξιῶν ἄξιος ὢν· ὁ γὰρ μὴ κατ'
 ἀξίαν αὐτὸ ποιῶν ἡλίθιος, τῶν δὲ κατ' ἀρετὴν
 οὐδεὶς ἡλίθιος οὐδ' ἀνόητος. μεγαλόψυχος μὲν
 4 οὖν ὁ εἰρημένος. ὁ γὰρ μικρῶν ἄξιος καὶ τούτων 5
 5 ἀξιῶν ἑαυτὸν σώφρων, μεγαλόψυχος δ' οὐκ ἐν
 μεγέθει γὰρ ἢ μεγαλοψυχία, ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ κάλλος
 ἐν μεγάλῳ σώματι, οἱ μικροὶ δ' ἀστεῖοι καὶ σύμ-
 6 μετροι, καλοὶ δ' οὐκ. ὁ δὲ μεγάλων ἑαυτὸν ἀξιῶν
 ἀνάξιος ὢν χαῦνος· ὁ δὲ μειζόνων ἢ ἄξιος οὐ πᾶς
 7 χαῦνος. ὁ δ' ἐλαττόνων ἢ ἄξιος μικρόψυχος, ἐάν 10
 τε μεγάλων ἐάν τε μετρίων, ἐάν τε καὶ μικρῶν
 ἄξιος ὢν ἔτι ἐλαττόνων αὐτὸν ἀξιοῖ. καὶ μάλιστα
 ἂν δόξειεν ὁ μεγάλων ἄξιος· τί γὰρ ἂν ἐποίει, εἰ μὴ
 8 τοσούτων ἦν ἄξιος; ἔστι δὲ ὁ μεγαλόψυχος τῷ
 μὲν μεγέθει ἄκρος, τῷ δὲ ὡς δεῖ μέσος (τοῦ γὰρ
 κατ' ἀξίαν αὐτὸν ἀξιοῖ). οἱ δ' ὑπερβάλλουσι καὶ 15
 9 ἐλλείπουσιν. εἰ δὴ¹ μεγάλων ἑαυτὸν ἀξιοῖ ἄξιος
 ὢν, καὶ μάλιστα τῶν μεγίστων, περὶ ἓν μάλιστα
 10 ἂν εἴη. ἢ δ'² ἀξία λέγεται πρὸς τὰ ἐκτὸς ἀγαθὰ·
 μέγιστον δὲ τοῦτ' ἂν θείημεν ὁ τοῖς θεοῖς ἀπο-
 νέμεμεν, καὶ οὐ μάλιστ' ἐφίενται οἱ ἐν ἀξιώματι, καὶ
 τὸ ἐπὶ τοῖς καλλίστοις ἄθλον· τοιοῦτον δ' ἢ τιμὴ· 20

¹ δὴ pr. K^b: δὲ δὴ,² ἢ γὰρ Susemihl.

^a The term χαῦνος does not apply to a man who deserves much but claims even more, nor to one who claims little but deserves even less. ^α

^b Cf. II. vi. 17.

claims much and deserves much; he who claims much without deserving it is foolish, but no one of moral excellence is foolish or senseless. The great-
 4 souled man is then as we have described. He who deserves little and claims little is modest or temper-
 5 ate, but not great-souled, since to be great-souled involves greatness just as handsomeness involves size: small people may be neat and well-made, but
 6 not handsome. He that claims much but does not deserve much is vain; though not everybody who
 7 claims more than he deserves is vain.^a He that claims less than he deserves is small-souled, whether his deserts be great or only moderate, or even though he deserves little, if he claims still less. The most small-souled of all would seem to be the man who claims less than he deserves when his deserts are great, for what would he have done had he not deserved so much?

- 8 Though therefore in regard to the greatness of his claim the great-souled man is an extreme,^b by reason of its rightness he stands at the mean point, for he claims what he deserves; while the vain and the small-souled err by excess and defect respectively.
- 9 If then the great-souled man is one who claims and is worthy of much, and the most great-souled is he who claims and is worthy of most, Greatness of Soul must be concerned with some one object
 10 especially. 'Worthy' is a term of relation: it denotes having a claim to goods external to oneself. Now the greatest external good we should assume to be the thing which we offer as a tribute to the gods, and which is most coveted by men of high station, and is the prize awarded for the noblest deeds; and such a thing is honour, for honour is

ARISTOTLE

- μέγιστον γὰρ δὴ τοῦτο τῶν ἐκτὸς ἀγαθῶν. περὶ
τιμᾶς δὴ καὶ ἀτιμίας ὁ μεγαλόψυχός ἐστιν ὡς δεῖ.
11 καὶ ἄνευ δὲ λόγου φαίνονται οἱ μεγαλόψυχοι περὶ
τιμῆν εἶναι· τιμῆς γὰρ μάλισθ' οἱ μεγάλοι¹ ἀξιούσιν
12 ἑαυτούς, κατ' ἀξίαν δέ. ὁ δὲ μικρόψυχος ἐλλείπει
καὶ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν καὶ πρὸς τὸ τοῦ μεγαλοψύχου²⁵
13 ἀξίωμα· ὁ δὲ χαῦνος πρὸς ἑαυτὸν μὲν ὑπερβάλλει,
14 οὐ μὴν τὸν γε μεγαλόψυχον. ὁ δὲ μεγαλόψυχος,
εἴπερ τῶν μεγίστων ἄξιος, ἄριστος ἂν εἴη· μείζονος
γὰρ αἰὲς ὁ βελτίων ἄξιος, καὶ μεγίστων ὁ ἄριστος·
τὸν ὡς ἀληθῶς ἄρα μεγαλόψυχον δεῖ ἀγαθὸν εἶναι.
καὶ δόξειεν² <ἂν>³ εἶναι μεγαλοψύχου τὸ ἐν ἐκάστη³⁰
15 ἀρετῇ μέγα· οὐδαμῶς γ'⁴ ἂν ἀρμόζοι μεγαλοψύχῳ
φεύγειν παρασεῖσαντι,⁵ οὐδ' ἀδικεῖν· τίνος γὰρ
ἔνεκα πράξει αἰσχρὰ ᾧ γ'⁶ οὐθὲν μέγα; καθ'
ἕκαστα δ' ἐπισκοποῦντι πάμπαν γελοῖος φαίνουσιν
ἂν ὁ μεγαλόψυχος μὴ ἀγαθὸς ᾖν. οὐκ εἴη δ' ἂν
οὐδὲ τιμῆς ἄξιος φαῦλος ᾖν· τῆς ἀρετῆς γὰρ ἀθλον³⁵
16 ἡ τιμή, καὶ ἀπονέμεται τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς. ἔοικε μὲν 1124 :

¹ οἱ μεγάλοι secl. Bywater.² δόξειεν δ' L^b.³ <ἂν> Turnebus.⁴ γ' ed. : τ'.⁵ παρασεῖοντι ? Richards.⁶ γ' add. K^b.^a §§ 12, 13 should properly follow § 8.^b That is, the small-souled man claims less than he deserves and less than the great-souled man deserves and claims; the vain man claims more than he deserves, but not more than the great-souled man deserves and claims.^c Literally 'fleeing swinging his arms at his side,' i.e. deficient in the virtue of Courage. If this be the meaning, the phrase recalls by contrast the leisurely retirement of Socrates from the stricken field of Delium (Plato, *Symposium*, 221 A). But the words have been taken with what follows, as illustrating the lack of Justice or Honesty, and the whole translated either 'outstripping an opponent in a race by

clearly the greatest of external goods. Therefore the great-souled man is he who has the right position in relation to honours and disgraces. And even without argument it is evident that honour is the object with which the great-souled are concerned, since it is honour above all else which great men claim and deserve.

The small-souled man ^a falls short both as judged by his own deserts and in comparison with the claim of the great-souled man; the vain man on the other hand exceeds as judged by his own standard, but does not however exceed the great-souled man.^b

And inasmuch as the great-souled man deserves most, he must be the best of men; for the better a man is the more he deserves, and he that is best deserves most. Therefore the truly great-souled man must be a good man. Indeed greatness in each of the virtues would seem to go with greatness of soul. For instance, one cannot imagine the great-souled man running at full speed when retreating in battle,^c nor acting dishonestly; since what motive for base conduct has a man to whom nothing is great ^d? Considering all the virtues in turn, we shall feel it quite ridiculous to picture the great-souled man as other than a good man. Moreover, if he were bad, he would not be worthy of honour, since honour is the prize of virtue, and the tribute that we pay to the good. Greatness of Soul seems therefore to

flinging the arms backward [which was considered unsportsmanlike], nor fouling,^e or else 'being prosecuted on a charge of blackmailing, nor cheating in business.'

^a *i.e.*, nothing is of much value in his eyes (*cf.* §§ 30, 34), so that gain, which is a motive to dishonesty with others, is no temptation to him.

ARISTOTLE

- οὖν ἢ μεγαλοψυχία οἷον κόσμος τις εἶναι τῶν ἀρετῶν· μείζους γὰρ αὐτὰς ποιεῖ, καὶ οὐ γίνεται ἄνευ ἐκείνων. διὰ τοῦτο χαλεπὸν τῇ ἀληθείᾳ μεγαλόψυχον εἶναι· οὐ γὰρ οἷόν τε ἄνευ καλοκά-
 17 γαθίας. μάλιστα μὲν οὖν περὶ τιμᾶς καὶ ἀτιμίας ⁵
 ὁ μεγαλόψυχός ἐστι, καὶ ἐπὶ μὲν ταῖς μεγάλαις καὶ ὑπὸ τῶν σπουδαίων μετρίως ἡσθήσεται, ὥς τῶν οἰκείων τυγχάνων ἢ καὶ ἐλαττόνων· ἀρετῆς γὰρ παντελοῦς οὐκ ἂν γένοιτο ἀξία τιμῇ· οὐ μὴν ἀλλ' ἀποδέξεται γε τῷ μὴ ἔχειν αὐτοὺς μείζω αὐτῷ ἀπονέμειν. τῆς δὲ παρὰ τῶν τυχόντων καὶ ¹⁰
 ἐπὶ μικροῖς πάμπαν ὀλιγωρήσει, οὐ γὰρ τούτων ἄξιος· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἀτιμίας, οὐ γὰρ ἔσται δικαίως
 18 περὶ αὐτόν. μάλιστα μὲν οὖν ἐστίν, ὥσπερ εἴρηται, ὁ μεγαλόψυχος περὶ τιμᾶς, οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ περὶ πλοῦτον καὶ δυναστείαν καὶ πᾶσαν εὐτυχίαν καὶ ἀτυχίαν μετρίως ἔξει, ὅπως ἂν γίνηται, καὶ οὗτ' ¹⁵
 εὐτυχῶν περιχαρὴς ἔσται οὗτ' ἀτυχῶν περίλυπος. οὐδὲ γὰρ περὶ τιμὴν οὕτως ἔχει, [ὥς]¹ μέγιστον ὄν. (αἱ γὰρ δυναστεῖαι καὶ ὁ πλοῦτος διὰ τὴν τιμὴν ἐστὶν αἰρετά· οἱ γοῦν ἔχοντες αὐτὰ τιμᾶσθαι δι' αὐτῶν βούλονται) ᾧ δὴ² καὶ ἡ τιμὴ μικρόν ἐστι, τούτῳ καὶ τᾶλλα. διὸ ὑπερόπται δοκοῦσιν εἶναι. ²⁰
 19 δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ τὰ εὐτυχήματα συμβάλλεσθαι πρὸς μεγαλοψυχίαν. οἱ γὰρ εὐγενεῖς ἀξιοῦνται τιμῆς

¹ [ὥς] Ramsauer.² δὲ LbΓ.

^a An echo of a line of Simonides, ἀνδρ' ἀγαθὸν μὲν ἀλαθέως γενέσθαι χαλεπόν, cf. i. x. 11 note.

^b The ms. reading gives 'For even honour he does not feel to be of the greatest importance.'

be as it were a crowning ornament of the virtues : it enhances their greatness, and it cannot exist without them. Hence it is hard to be truly great-souled,^a for greatness of soul is impossible without moral nobility.

- 17 Honour and dishonour then are the objects with which the great-souled man is especially concerned. Great honours accorded by persons of worth will afford him pleasure in a moderate degree : he will feel he is receiving only what belongs to him, or even less, for no honour can be adequate to the merits of perfect virtue, yet all the same he will deign to accept their honours, because they have no greater tribute to offer him. Honour rendered by common people and on trivial grounds he will utterly despise, for this is not what he merits. He will also despise dishonour, for no dishonour can
- 18 justly attach to him. The great-souled man then, as has been said, is especially concerned with honour ; but he will also observe due measure in respect to wealth, power, and good and bad fortune in general, as they may befall him ; he will not rejoice overmuch in prosperity, nor grieve overmuch at adversity. For he does not care much even about honour, which is the greatest of external goods^b (since power and wealth are desirable only for the honour they bring, at least their possessors wish to be honoured for their sake) ; he therefore to whom even honour is a small thing will be indifferent to other things as well. Hence great-souled men are thought to be haughty.

- 19 But it is thought that the gifts of fortune also conduce to greatness of soul ; for the high-born and those who are powerful or wealthy are esteemed

ARISTOTLE

καὶ οἱ δυναστεύοντες ἢ¹ πλουτοῦντες· ἐν ὑπεροχῇ
 γάρ, τὸ δ' ἀγαθῷ ὑπερέχον πᾶν ἐντιμότερον· διὸ
 καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα μεγαλοψυχότερους ποιεῖ· τιμῶνται
 20 γὰρ ὑπὸ τινῶν. κατ' ἀλήθειαν δ' ὁ ἀγαθὸς μόνος²⁵
 τιμητέος· ὧ δ' ἄμφω ὑπάρχει, μᾶλλον ἀξιούται
 τιμῆς. οἱ δ' ἄνευ ἀρετῆς τὰ τοιαῦτα ἀγαθὰ
 ἔχοντες οὔτε δικαίως ἑαυτοὺς μεγάλων ἀξιούσιν
 οὔτε ὀρθῶς μεγαλόψυχοι λέγονται· ἄνευ γὰρ ἀρετῆς
 21 παντελοῦς οὐκ ἔστι ταῦτα. ὑπερόπται δὲ καὶ
 ὕβρισταὶ καὶ οἱ τὰ τοιαῦτα ἔχοντες ἀγαθὰ γίγνον- 30
 ται· ἄνευ γὰρ ἀρετῆς οὐ ράδιον φέρειν ἐμμελῶς τὰ
 εὐτυχήματα· οὐ δυνάμενοι δὲ φέρειν καὶ οἰόμενοι 11241
 τῶν ἄλλων ὑπερέχειν ἐκείνων μὲν καταφρονοῦσιν,
 αὐτοὶ δ' ὅ τι ἂν τύχῃσι πράττουσιν. μιμοῦνται
 γὰρ τὸν μεγαλόψυχον οὐχ ὅμοιοι ὄντες, τοῦτο δὲ
 δρῶσιν ἐν οἷς δύνανται· τὰ μὲν οὖν κατ' ἀρετὴν οὐ
 22 πράττουσι, καταφρονοῦσι δὲ τῶν ἄλλων. ὁ μὲν 5
 γὰρ² μεγαλόψυχος δικαίως καταφρονεῖ (δοξάζει
 23 γὰρ ἀληθῶς), οἱ δὲ πολλοὶ τυχόντως. οὐκ ἔστι δὲ
 μικροκίνδυνος³ οὐδὲ φιλοκίνδυνος διὰ τὸ ὀλίγα
 τιμᾶν, μεγαλοκίνδυνος δέ, καὶ ὅταν κινδυνεύῃ,
 ἀφειδῆς τοῦ βίου ὡς οὐκ ἄξιον ὄν πάντως ζῆν.
 24 καὶ οἷος εἶ ποιεῖν, εὐεργετούμενος δ' αἰσχύνεται· 10

¹ ἢ οἱ L^b.² μὲν γὰρ K^b: δέ.³ πυκνοκίνδυνος L^b.

- worthy of honour, because they are superior to their fellows, and that which is superior in something good is always held in higher honour ; so that even these gifts of fortune make men more great-souled, because
- 20 their possessors are honoured by some people. But in reality only the good man ought to be honoured, although he that has both virtue and fortune is esteemed still more worthy of honour ; whereas those who possess the goods of fortune without virtue are not justified in claiming high worth, and cannot correctly be styled great-souled, since true worth and greatness of soul cannot exist without
- 21 complete virtue. It is true that even those who merely possess the goods of fortune may be haughty and insolent ; because without virtue it is not easy to bear good fortune becomingly, and such men, being unable to carry their prosperity, and thinking themselves superior to the rest of mankind, despise other people, although their own conduct is no better than another's. The fact is that they try to imitate the great-souled man without being really like him, and only copy him in what they can, reproducing his contempt for others but not his virtuous conduct.
- 22 For the great-souled man is justified in despising other people—his estimates are correct ; but most proud men have no good ground for their pride.
- 23 The great-souled man does not run into danger for trifling reasons, and is not a lover of danger, because there are few things he values ; but he will face danger in a great cause, and when so doing will be ready to sacrifice his life, since he holds that life is not worth having at every price.
- 24 He is fond of conferring benefits, but ashamed to receive them, because the former is a mark of

ARISTOTLE

τὸ μὲν γὰρ ὑπερέχοντος, τὸ δ' ὑπερεχομένου.
καὶ ἀντευεργητικὸς πλειόνων· οὕτω γὰρ οἱ προσ-
25 οφλήσει ὁ ὑπάρξας καὶ ἔσται εὖ πεπονθώς. δοκοῦσι
δὲ καὶ μνημονεύειν οὗ² ἂν ποιήσωσιν εὖ, ὧν³ δ' ἂν
πάθωσιν οὗ (ἐλάττων γὰρ ὁ παθὼν εὖ τοῦ ποιή-
σαντος, βούλεται δ' ὑπερέχειν), καὶ τὰ μὲν ἡδῶς¹⁵
ἀκούειν,⁴ τὰ δ' ἀηδῶς· διὸ καὶ τὴν Θέτιν οὐ λέγειν
τὰς εὐεργεσίας τῷ Δίῳ, οὐδ' οἱ Λάκωνες πρὸς τοὺς
26 Ἀθηναίους, ἀλλ' ἃ πεπόνθησαν εὖ. μεγαλοψύχου
δὲ καὶ τὸ μηθενὸς δεῖσθαι ἢ μόγις, ὑπηρετεῖν δὲ
προθύμως· καὶ πρὸς μὲν τοὺς ἐν ἀξιώματι καὶ
εὐτυχίαις μέγαν εἶναι, πρὸς δὲ τοὺς μέσους μέτριον·
τῶν μὲν γὰρ ὑπερέχειν χαλεπὸν καὶ σεμνόν, τῶν
δὲ ῥάδιον, καὶ ἐπ'⁵ ἐκείνοις μὲν σεμνύνεσθαι οὐκ
ἀγεννές, ἐν δὲ τοῖς ταπεινοῖς φορτικόν, ὥσπερ εἰς
27 τοὺς ἀσθενεῖς ἰσχυρίζεσθαι. καὶ εἰς τὰ ἔντιμα μὴ
ἰέναι, ἢ οὐ πρωτεύουσιν ἄλλοι· καὶ ἀργὸν εἶναι
καὶ μελλητὴν ἄλλ' ἢ ὅπου τιμὴ μεγάλη ἢ ἔργον,²⁵
καὶ ὀλίγων μὲν πρακτικόν, μεγάλων δὲ καὶ
28 ὀνομαστών. ἀναγκαῖον δὲ καὶ φανερομισῆ⁶ εἶναι
καὶ φανερόφιλον (τὸ γὰρ λανθάνειν φοβούμενου),
καὶ μέλει⁷ τῆς ἀληθείας μᾶλλον ἢ τῆς δόξης, καὶ

¹ οἱ add. K^b.² οὗ Bywater: οὗς (ὧν Asp.).³ <ὕφ> ὦ Muenscher.⁴ ἀκούειν Bywater: ἀκούει.⁵ ἐπ' K^b: ἐν.⁶ φανερομισῆ cod. Morellii: φανερομίσση pr. K^b, φανερόμισον vulg.⁷ ἀμελεῖν pr. K^b.

^a An incorrect recollection of *Iliad*, i. 393 ff., 503 f.; there Achilles says that his mother has often reminded Zeus how she rescued him when the other gods wished to put him in chains; and Thetis goes to Zeus and reminds him of her services in general terms.

^b The reference is uncertain.

superiority and the latter of inferiority. He returns a service done to him with interest, since this will put the original benefactor into his debt in turn, and make him the party benefited. The great-souled are thought to have a good memory for any benefit they have conferred, but a bad memory for those which they have received (since the recipient of a benefit is the inferior of his benefactor, whereas they desire to be superior); and to enjoy being reminded of the former but to dislike being reminded of the latter: this is why the poet makes Thetis ^a not specify her services to Zeus; nor did the Spartans treating with the Athenians ^b recall the occasions when Sparta had aided Athens, but those on which Athens had aided Sparta.

It is also characteristic of the great-souled man never to ask help from others, or only with reluctance, but to render aid willingly; and to be haughty towards men of position and fortune, but courteous towards those of moderate station, because it is difficult and distinguished to be superior to the great, but easy to outdo the lowly, and to adopt a high manner with the former is not ill-bred, but it is vulgar to lord it over humble people: it is like putting forth one's strength against the weak. He will not compete for the common objects of ambition, or go where other people take the first place; and he will be idle and slow to act, except when pursuing some high honour or achievement; and will not engage in many undertakings, but only in such as are important and distinguished. He must be open both in love and in hate, since concealment shows timidity; and care more for the truth than for what people will think; and speak

λέγειν καὶ πράττειν φανερώς (παρρησιαστής¹ γὰρ
 διὰ τὸ καταφρονητικὸς εἶναι, καὶ ἀληθευτικός,³⁰
 πλὴν ὅσα μὴ δι' εἰρωνείαν· εἰρων² δὲ πρὸς τοὺς
 29 πολλούς), καὶ πρὸς ἄλλον μὴ δύνασθαι ζῆν ἄλλ' ἢ³ 1125 a
 φίλον (δουλικὸν γάρ, διὸ καὶ πάντες οἱ κόλακες
 30 θητικοὶ καὶ οἱ ταπεινοὶ κόλακες). οὐδὲ θαῦμα-
 στικός· οὐθὲν γὰρ μέγα αὐτῷ ἐστίν. οὐδὲ μνησί-
 κακος· οὐ γὰρ μεγαλοψύχου τὸ ἀπομνημονεύειν,
 31 ἄλλως τε καὶ κακά, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον παρορᾶν. οὐδ' ⁵
 ἀνθρωπολόγος· οὔτε γὰρ περὶ αὐτοῦ ἐρεῖ οὔτε περὶ
 ἑτέρου· οὔτε γὰρ ἵνα ἐπαινῇται μέλει αὐτῷ οὔθ'
 ὅπως οἱ ἄλλοι ψέγωνται (οὐδ' αὖ ἐπαινετικός ἐστίν).
 διόπερ οὐδὲ κακολόγος, οὐδὲ τῶν ἐχθρῶν, εἰ μὴ
 32 δι' ὕβριν. καὶ περὶ ἀναγκαίων ἢ μικρῶν ἥκιστα
 ὀλοφυρτικός καὶ δεητικός· σπουδάζοντος γὰρ ¹⁰
 33 οὕτως ἔχειν περὶ ταῦτα. καὶ οἷος κεκτηῖσθαι
 μᾶλλον τὰ καλὰ καὶ ἄκαρπα τῶν καρπίμων καὶ
 34 ὠφελίμων· αὐτάρκους γὰρ μᾶλλον. καὶ κίνησις
 δὲ βραδεία τοῦ μεγαλοψύχου δοκεῖ εἶναι, καὶ φωνὴ
 βαρεῖα, καὶ λέξεις στάσιμος· οὐ γὰρ σπευστικός ὁ
 περὶ ὀλίγα σπουδάζων, οὐδὲ σύντονος ὁ μὴθὲν ¹⁵
 μέγα οἰόμενος· ἢ δ' ὀξύφωνία καὶ ἢ ταχυτῆς διὰ
 τούτων.

35 Τοιοῦτος μὲν οὖν ὁ μεγαλόψυχος, ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων
 μικρόψυχος, ὁ δ' ὑπερβάλλον χαῖνος. οὐ κακοὶ
 μὲν οὖν δοκοῦσιν εἶναι οὐδ' οὗτοι, οὐ γὰρ κακο-
 ποιοὶ εἰσιν, ἡμαρτημένοι δέ· ὁ μὲν γὰρ μικρό-

¹ sic Bywater: παρρησιαστικός γάρ· διὸ καταφρονητικός· καταφρονητικός δέ, διὸ παρρησιαστικός καὶ ἀληθευτικός vel similia.

² εἰρων? Susemihl: εἰρωνα N^b, εἰρωνεία vulg.

³ ἢ πρὸς L^b.

^a See note on π. vii. 12.

^b Cf. c. ii. 22.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. iii. 28-35

- and act openly, since as he despises other men he is outspoken and frank, except when speaking with ironical self-depreciation,^a as he does to common
- 29 people. He will be incapable of living at the will of another, unless a friend, since to do so is slavish, and hence flatterers are always servile, and humble
- 30 people flatterers. He is not prone to admiration, since nothing is great to him. He does not bear a grudge, for it is not a mark of greatness of soul to recall things against people, especially the wrongs they have done you, but rather to overlook them.
- 31 He is no gossip, for he will not talk either about himself or about another, as he neither wants to receive compliments nor to hear other people run down (nor is he lavish of praise either); and so he is not given to speaking evil himself, even of his enemies, except when he deliberately intends to
- 32 give offence. In troubles that cannot be avoided or trifling mishaps he will never cry out or ask for help, since to do so would imply that he took them
- 33 to heart. He likes to own beautiful and useless things, rather than useful things that bring in a return, since the former show his independence more.
- 34 Other traits generally attributed to the great-souled man are a slow gait, a deep voice, and a deliberate utterance; to speak in shrill tones and walk fast denotes an excitable and nervous temperament, which does not belong to one who cares for few things and thinks nothing great.
- 35 Such then being the Great-souled man, the corresponding character on the side of deficiency is the Small-souled man, and on that of excess the Vain man. These also ^b are not thought to be actually vicious, since they do no harm, but rather mistaken.

Smallness
of Soul.

ARISTOTLE

- ψυχος ἄξιος ὦν ἀγαθῶν ἑαυτὸν ἀποστερεῖ ὦν 20
 ἄξιός ἐστι, καὶ ἔοικε κακὸν ἔχειν τι ἐκ τοῦ μὴ
 ἄξιον ἑαυτὸν τῶν ἀγαθῶν [καὶ¹ ἀγνοεῖν δ'
 ἑαυτὸν]. ὠρέγετο γὰρ ἂν ὦν ἄξιος ἦν, ἀγαθῶν γε
 ὄντων. οὐ μὴν ἡλίθιοί γε οἱ τοιοῦτοι δοκοῦσιν
 εἶναι, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον ὀκνηροί· ἢ τοιαύτη δὲ ὁδὸς
 δοκεῖ καὶ χείρους ποιεῖν· ἕκαστοι γὰρ ἐφίενται 25
 τῶν κατ' ἄξίαν, ἀφίστανται δὲ καὶ τῶν πράξεων
 τῶν καλῶν καὶ τῶν ἐπιτηδευμάτων ὡς ἀνάξιοι
 36 ὄντες, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τῶν ἐκτὸς ἀγαθῶν. οἱ δὲ
 χαῖνοι ἡλίθιοι² καὶ ἑαυτοὺς ἀγνοοῦντες, καὶ ταῦτ'
 ἐπιφανῶς· οὐ³ γὰρ ἄξιοι ὄντες τοῖς ἐντίμοις ἐπι-
 χειροῦσιν, εἴτα ἐξελέγχονται· καὶ ἐσθῆτι κοσμοῦν- 30
 ται καὶ σχήματι καὶ τοῖς τοιούτοις· καὶ βούλονται
 τὰ εὐτυχήματα φανερά εἶναι αὐτῶν, καὶ λέγουσι
 περὶ αὐτῶν,⁴ ὡς διὰ τούτων τιμηθησόμενοι.
 37 Ἀντιτίθεται δὲ τῇ μεγαλοψυχίᾳ ἢ μικροψυχία
 μᾶλλον τῆς χαυνότητος· καὶ γὰρ γίγνεται μᾶλλον
 καὶ χείρόν ἐστιν.
 38 Ἡ μὲν οὖν μεγαλοψυχία περὶ τιμὴν ἐστι μεγά- 35
 λην, ὥσπερ εἴρηται.
 iv Ἐοικε δὲ καὶ περὶ ταύτην εἶναι ἀρετὴ τις, 1125 i
 καθάπερ ἐν τοῖς πρώτοις ἐλέχθη, ἢ δόξειεν ἂν
 παραπληαίως ἔχειν πρὸς τὴν μεγαλοψυχίαν ὥσπερ
 καὶ ἡ ἐλευθεριότης πρὸς τὴν μεγαλοπρέπειαν.
 ἄμφω γὰρ αὐται τοῦ μὲν μεγάλου ἀφεστᾶσι, περὶ 3

¹ [καὶ . . . ἑαυτὸν] ed. (v l. ἀγνοεῖ Stewart).² ἡλίθιοι om. K^b. ³ οὐ K^b, ὡς vulg. ⁴ αὐτῶν L^bl'.

^a These words seem to be interpolated. The small-souled man does not claim his deserts, but he may know what they are; he is not charged with ignorance of self, as is the vain man, § 36.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. iii. 35—iv. 1

The small-souled man deprives himself of the good things that he deserves; and his failure to claim good things makes it seem that he has something bad about him [and also that he does not know himself],^a for (people argue), if he deserved any good, he would try to obtain it. Not that such persons are considered foolish, but rather too retiring; yet this estimate of them is thought to make them still worse, for men's ambitions show what they are worth, and if they hold aloof from noble enterprises and pursuits, and forgo the good things of life, presumably it is because they are not worthy of them.

36 The vain on the other hand are foolish persons, *Vanity.* who are deficient in self-knowledge and expose their defect: they undertake honourable responsibilities of which they are not worthy, and then are found out. They are ostentatious in dress, manner and so on. They want people to know how well off they are, and talk about it,^b imagining that this will make them respected.

37 Smallness of Soul is more opposed than Vanity to Greatness of Soul, being both more prevalent and worse.

38 Greatness of Soul then, as we have said, is concerned with great honours.

iv It appears however, that honour also,^c as was said *Proper Ambition.* in the first part of this work, has a certain virtue concerned with it, which may be held to bear the same relation to Greatness of Soul that Liberality bears to Magnificence. This virtue as well as Liberality is without the element of greatness, but

^b A variant reading is 'talk about themselves.'

^c i.e., honour as well as wealth is the object of both a major and a minor virtue: see II. vii. 8.

δὲ τὰ μέτρια καὶ τὰ μικρὰ διατιθέασιν ἡμᾶς ὥς
 2 δεῖ· ὥσπερ δ' ἐν λήψει καὶ δόσει χρημάτων μεσότης
 ἐστὶ καὶ ὑπερβολή τε καὶ ἔλλειψις, οὕτω καὶ ἐν
 τιμῆς ὀρέξει τὸ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ καὶ ἥττον, καὶ τὸ
 3 ὅθεν δεῖ καὶ ὥς δεῖ. τὸν τε γὰρ φιλότιμον ψέγο-
 μεν ὥς καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ καὶ ὅθεν οὐ δεῖ τῆς τιμῆς 10
 ἐφιέμενον, τὸν τε ἀφιλότιμον ὥς οὐδ' ἐπὶ τοῖς
 4 καλοῖς προαιρούμενον τιμᾶσθαι. ἔστι δ' ὅτε τὸν
 φιλότιμον ἐπαινοῦμεν ὥς ἀνδρώδη καὶ φιλόκαλον,
 τὸν δὲ ἀφιλότιμον ὥς μέτριον καὶ σώφρονα, ὥσπερ
 καὶ ἐν τοῖς πρώτοις εἵπομεν. δῆλον δ' ὅτι πλεονα-
 χῶς τοῦ φιλοτοιοῦτου λεγομένου οὐκ ἐπὶ τὸ αὐτὸ 15
 αἰεὶ φέρομεν τὸ¹ φιλότιμον, ἀλλ' ἐπαινοῦντες μὲν
 ἐπὶ τὸ μᾶλλον ἢ οἱ πολλοί, ψέγοντες δ' ἐπὶ τὸ μᾶλ-
 λον ἢ δεῖ. ἀνωνύμου δ' οὔσης τῆς μεσότητος, ὥς
 ἐρήμης ἔοικεν ἀμφισβητεῖν τὰ ἄκρα. ἐν οἷς δ'
 5 ἐστὶν ὑπερβολή καὶ ἔλλειψις, καὶ τὸ μέσον· ὀρέ-
 γονται δὲ τιμῆς καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ καὶ ἥττον· ἔστι 20
 δὴ² καὶ ὥς δεῖ· ἐπαινεῖται δ' οὖν³ ἡ ἕξις αὕτη,
 μεσότης οὔσα περὶ τιμὴν ἀνώνυμος. φαίνεται δὲ
 πρὸς μὲν τὴν φιλοτιμίαν ἀφιλοτιμία, πρὸς δὲ τὴν
 ἀφιλοτιμίαν φιλοτιμία, πρὸς ἀμφοτέρωθεν δὲ ἀμφο-
 6 τερά πως. ἔοικε δὲ τοῦτ' εἶναι καὶ περὶ τὰς ἄλλας
 ἀρετάς· ἀντικεῖσθαι δ' ἐνταῦθ' οἱ ἄκροι φαίνονται 25
 διὰ τὸ μὴ ὠνομάσθαι τὸν μέσον.

¹ τὸ Bywater : τὸν.² ἔστι δ' ὅτε M^b.³ δ' οὖν K^b : οὖν L^bΓ, γοῦν H^aN^b.^a See II. vii. 8.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. iv. 1-6

causes us to be rightly disposed towards moderate and small honours as Liberality does towards moderate
2 and small amounts of money ; and just as there is a mean and also excess and deficiency in getting and in giving money, so also it is possible to pursue honour more or less than is right and also to seek it from the
3 right source and in the right way. We blame a man as ambitious if he seeks honour more than is right, or from wrong sources ; we blame him as unambitious if he does not care about receiving honour even on
4 noble grounds. But at another time we praise the ambitious man as manly and a lover of what is noble, or praise the unambitious man as modest and temperate, as we said in the first part of this work.^a The fact is that the expression 'fond of' so-and-so is ambiguous, and we do not always apply the word 'fond of honour' (ambitious) to the same thing ; when we use it as a term of praise, we mean 'more fond of honour than most men,' but when as a reproach, 'more than is right.' As the observance of the mean has no name, the two extremes
dispute as it were for the unclaimed estate. But where there is excess and deficiency there must
5 also be a mean. Now men do seek honour both more and less than is right ; it must therefore be possible also to do so rightly. It is therefore this nameless middle disposition in regard to honour that we really praise. Compared with ambition it appears unambitiousness, and compared with unambitiousness it appears ambition : compared with both, it
6 appears in a sense to be both. This seems to be true of the other virtues also ; but in the present case the extremes appear to be opposed only to one another, because the middle character has no name.

ARISTOTLE

v Πραότης δ' ἐστὶ¹ μεσότης περὶ ὀργάς, ἀνωνύμου
 δ' ὄντος τοῦ μέσου, σχεδὸν δὲ καὶ τῶν ἄκρων, ἐπὶ
 τὸ² μέσον τὴν πραότητα φέρομεν, πρὸς τὴν ἔλλειψιν
 2 ἀποκλίνουσιν, ἀνώνυμον οὖσαν. ἡ δ' ὑπερβολὴ
 ὀργιλότης τις λέγεται· ἂν· τὸ μὲν γὰρ πάθος ἐστὶν 30
 3 ὀργή, τὰ δ' ἐμποιοῦντα πολλὰ καὶ διαφέροντα. ὁ
 μὲν οὖν ἐφ' οἷς δεῖ καὶ οἷς δεῖ ὀργιζόμενος, ἔτι δὲ
 καὶ ὡς δεῖ καὶ ὅτε καὶ ὅσον χρόνον, ἐπαινεῖται·
 πρῶτος δὲ οὗτος ἂν εἴη, εἴπερ ἡ πραότης ἐπαινεῖται
 (βούλεται γὰρ ὁ πρῶτος ἀτάραχος εἶναι καὶ μὴ
 ἄγεσθαι ὑπὸ τοῦ πάθους, ἀλλ' ὡς ἂν ὁ λόγος τάξη, 35
 οὕτω καὶ ἐπὶ τούτοις καὶ ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον χρόνον χα- 1126 :
 4 λεπαίνειν· ἀμαρτάνειν δὲ δοκεῖ μᾶλλον ἐπὶ τὴν
 ἔλλειψιν· οὐ γὰρ τιμωρητικός ὁ πρῶτος, ἀλλὰ μᾶλ-
 5 λον συγγνωμονικός). ἡ δ' ἔλλειψις, εἴτ' ἀοργησία
 τίς ἐστὶν εἴθ' ὅ τι δὴ ποτε, ψέγεται· οἱ γὰρ μὴ
 ὀργιζόμενοι ἐφ' οἷς δεῖ ἡλίθιοι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι, καὶ 6
 6 οἱ μὴ ὡς· δεῖ μὴδ' ὅτε μὴδ' οἷς δεῖ· δοκεῖ γὰρ οὐκ
 αἰσθάνεσθαι οὐδὲ λυπεῖσθαι, μὴ ὀργιζόμενος τε
 οὐκ εἶναι ἀμυντικός, τὸ δὲ προπηλακίζόμενον ἀν-
 ἔχεσθαι καὶ τοὺς οἰκείους περιορᾶν ἀνδραποδῶδες.
 7 ἡ δ' ὑπερβολὴ κατὰ πάντα μὲν γίνεται (καὶ γὰρ

¹ ἐστὶ μὲν Γ.

² τὸν Victorius.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. v. 1-7

- v Gentleness is the observance of the mean in relation to anger. There is as a matter of fact no recognized name for the mean in this respect—indeed there can hardly be said to be names for the extremes either—, so we apply the word Gentleness to the mean though really it inclines to the side of the defect. This has no name, but the excess may be called a sort of Irascibility, for the emotion concerned is anger, though the causes producing it are many and various.
- 2
- 3 Now we praise a man who feels anger on the right grounds and against the right persons, and also in the right manner and at the right moment and for the right length of time. He may then be called gentle-tempered, if we take gentleness to be a praiseworthy quality (for 'gentle' really denotes a calm temper, not led by emotion but only becoming angry in such a manner, for such causes and for such a length of time as principle may ordain; although the quality is thought rather to err on the side of defect, since the gentle-tempered man is not prompt to seek redress for injuries, but rather inclined to forgive them).
- 4
- 5 The defect, on the other hand, call it a sort of Lack of Spirit or what not, is blamed; since those who do not get angry at things at which it is right to be angry are considered foolish, and so are those who do not get angry in the right manner, at the right time, and with the right people. It is thought that they do not feel or resent an injury, and that if a man is never angry he will not stand up for himself; and it is considered servile to put up with an insult to oneself or suffer one's friends to be insulted.
- 6
- 7 Excess also is possible in each of these ways, for

Gentleness
or Good-
temper.

Lack of
Spirit.

ARISTOTLE

οἷς οὐ δεῖ, καὶ ἐφ' οἷς οὐ δεῖ, καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ, 10
καὶ θάπτον, καὶ πλείω χρόνον), οὐ μὴν ἅπαντ' ἀπαντὰ γε
τῷ αὐτῷ ὑπάρχει. οὐ γὰρ ἂν δύναιτ' εἶναι· τὸ
γὰρ κακὸν καὶ ἑαυτὸ ἀπόλλυσι, καὶ ὀλόκληρον ἦ,
8 ἀφόρητον γίνεται. οἱ μὲν οὖν ὀργίλοι ταχέως μὲν
ὀργίζονται καὶ οἷς οὐ δεῖ καὶ ἐφ' οἷς οὐ δεῖ καὶ
μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ, παύονται δὲ ταχέως· ὁ καὶ βέλτιστον 15
ἔχουσιν· συμβαίνει δ' αὐτοῖς τοῦτο ὅτι οὐ κατέχουσι
τὴν ὀργὴν ἀλλ' ἀνταποδιδόασιν ἢ φανεροί εἰσι διὰ
9 τὴν ὀξύτητα, εἰπ' ἀποπαύονται. ὑπερβολῇ δ'
εἰσὶν οἱ ἀκρόχολοι ὀξεῖς καὶ πρὸς πᾶν ὀργίλοι καὶ
10 ἐπὶ παντί· ὅθεν καὶ τοῦνομα. οἱ δὲ πικροὶ δυσδιά- 20
λυτοι, καὶ πολὺν χρόνον ὀργίζονται· κατέχουσι γὰρ
τὸν θυμόν. παῦλα δὲ γίνεται, ὅταν ἀνταποδιδῶ·
ἢ γὰρ τιμωρία παύει τῆς ὀργῆς, ἡδονὴν ἀντὶ τῆς
λύπης ἐμποιοῦσα. τούτου δὲ μὴ γνωμένου τὸ
βάρος ἔχουσιν· διὰ γὰρ τὸ μὴ ἐπιφανὲς εἶναι οὐδὲ
συμπεῖθει αὐτοὺς οὐδεὶς, ἐν αὐτῷ δὲ πέψαι τὴν 25
ὀργὴν χρόνου δεῖ. εἰσὶ δ' οἱ τοιοῦτοι ἑαυτοῖς
11 ὀχληρότατοι καὶ τοῖς μάλιστα φίλοις. χαλεποὺς
δὲ λέγομεν τοὺς ἐφ' οἷς τε μὴ δεῖ χαλεπαίνοντας
καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ καὶ πλείω χρόνον, καὶ μὴ δι-
12 αλλαττομένους ἄνευ τιμωρίας ἢ κολάσεως. τῇ
πραότῃ δὲ μᾶλλον τὴν ὑπερβολὴν ἀντιτίθεμεν·
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NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. v. 7-12

one can be angry with the wrong people, for the wrong things, or more violently or more quickly or longer than is right; but not all these excesses of temper are found in the same person. This would be impossible, since evil destroys even itself, and when present in its entirety becomes unbearable.

Excess of anger, its various forms.

- 8 There are then first the Irascible, who get angry quickly and with the wrong people and for the wrong things and too violently, but whose anger is soon over. This last is the best point in their character, and it is due to the fact that they do not keep their anger in, but being quick-tempered display it openly by retaliating, and then have done with it.
- 9 The excessively quick-tempered are Passionate; they fly into a passion at everything and on all occasions: hence their name. The Bitter-tempered on the other hand are implacable, and remain angry a long time, because they keep their wrath in; whereas when a man retaliates there is an end of the matter: the pain of resentment is replaced by the pleasure of obtaining redress, and so his anger ceases. But if they do not retaliate, men continue to labour under a sense of resentment—for as their anger is concealed no one else tries to placate them either, and it takes a long time to digest one's wrath within one. Bitterness is the most troublesome form of bad temper both to a man himself
- 11 and to his nearest friends. Those who lose their temper at the wrong things, and more and longer than they ought, and who refuse to be reconciled without obtaining redress or retaliating, we call Harsh-tempered.
- 12 We consider the excess to be more opposed to Gentleness than the defect, because it occurs more

ARISTOTLE

καὶ γὰρ μᾶλλον γίνεται (ἄνθρωπικώτερον γὰρ τὸ τιμωρεῖσθαι), καὶ πρὸς τὸ συμβιωῦν οἱ χαλεποὶ χεῖρους.

- 13 Ὁ δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς πρότερον εἴρηται, καὶ ἐκ τῶν λεγομένων δῆλον· οὐ γὰρ ῥᾶδιον διορίσαι τὸ πῶς καὶ τίσι καὶ ἐπὶ ποίοις καὶ πόσον χρόνον ὀργιστέον, 35 καὶ τὸ μέχρι τίνος ὀρθῶς ποιεῖ τις ἢ ἁμαρτάνει. ὁ μὲν γὰρ μικρὸν παρεκβαίνων οὐ ψέγεται, οὐτ' ἐπὶ τὸ μᾶλλον οὐτ' ἐπὶ τὸ ἥττον· ἐνίοτε γὰρ τοὺς ἐλλείποντας ἐπαινοῦμεν καὶ πράους φαμέν, καὶ 1126 τ τοὺς χαλεπαίνοντας ἀνδρόδεις ὡς δυναμένους ἄρχειν. ὁ δὲ πόσον καὶ πῶς παρεκβαίνων ψεκτός, οὐ ῥᾶδιον τῷ λόγῳ ἀποδοῦναι· ἐν γὰρ τοῖς καθ' 14 ἕκαστα, κἂν¹ ἡ αἰσθήσει ἢ κρίσις. ἀλλὰ τό γε 5 τοσοῦτον δῆλον, ὅτι ἡ μὲν μέση ἕξις ἐπαινετή, καθ' ἣν οἷς δεῖ ὀργιζόμεθα καὶ ἐφ' οἷς δεῖ καὶ ὡς δεῖ καὶ πάντα τὰ τοιαῦτα, αἱ δ' ὑπερβολαὶ καὶ ἐλλείψεις ψεκταί, καὶ ἐπὶ μικρὸν μὲν γινόμεναι ἡρέμα, ἐπὶ πλέον δὲ μᾶλλον, ἐπὶ πολὺ δὲ σφόδρα. 15 δῆλον οὖν ὅτι τῆς μέσης ἕξεως ἀνθεκτέον. αἱ μὲν οὖν περὶ τὴν ὀργὴν ἕξεις εἰρήσθωσαν. 10
- vi Ἐν δὲ ταῖς ὁμιλίαις καὶ τῷ συζῆν καὶ λόγων καὶ πραγμάτων κοινωνεῖν οἱ μὲν ἄρεσκοι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι, οἱ πάντα πρὸς ἡδονὴν ἐπαινοῦντες καὶ οὐθὲν

¹ κἂν Bywater (καὶ ἐν: Ramsauer): καὶ.

^a II. ix. 7-9, a passage closely repeated here.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. v. 12—vi. 1

frequently, human nature being more prone to seek redress than to forgive; and because the harsh-tempered are worse to live with than the unduly placable.

13 But what was said above ^a is also clear from what we are now saying; it is not easy to define in what manner and with whom and on what grounds and how long one ought to be angry, and up to what point one does right in so doing and where error begins. For he who transgresses the limit only a little is not held blameworthy, whether he errs on the side of excess or defect; in fact, we sometimes praise those deficient in anger and call them gentle-tempered, and we sometimes praise those who are harsh-tempered as manly, and fitted to command. It is therefore not easy to pronounce on principle what degree and manner of error is blameworthy, since this is a matter of the particular circumstances, and judgement rests with the faculty of perception.

14 But thus much at all events is clear, that the middle disposition is praiseworthy, which leads us to be angry with the right people for the right things in the right manner and so on, while the various forms of excess and defect are blameworthy—when of slight extent, but little so, when greater, more, and when extreme, very blameworthy indeed. It is clear therefore that we should strive to attain the middle disposition.

15 Let this be our account of the dispositions related to anger.

vi In society and the common life and intercourse of conversation and business, some men are considered to be Obsequious; these are people who com-
plaisantly approve of everything and never raise

Agreeable-
ness.

ἀντιτείνοντες, ἀλλ' οἰόμενοι δεῖν ἄλνποι τοῖς ἐν-
 2 τυγχάνουσιν εἶναι· οἱ δ' ἐξ ἐναντίας τούτοις πρὸς ¹⁵
 πάντα ἀντιτείνοντες καὶ τοῦ λυπεῖν οὐδ' ὅτι οὖν
 φροντίζοντες δύσκολοι καὶ δυσέριδες καλοῦνται.
 3 ὅτι μὲν οὖν αἱ εἰρημέναι ἔξεις ψεκταί εἰσιν, οὐκ
 ἄδηλον, καὶ ὅτι ἡ μέση τούτων ἐπαινετή, καθ' ἣν
 ἀποδέξεται ἃ δεῖ καὶ ὡς δεῖ, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ δυσ-
 4 χερανεῖ. ὄνομα δ' οὐκ ἀποδέδοται αὐτῇ τι, ἔοικε ²⁰
 δὲ μάλιστα φιλία· τοιοῦτος γάρ ἐστιν ὁ κατὰ τὴν
 μέσσην ἔξω οἶον βουλόμεθα λέγειν τὸν ἐπιεικῆ
 5 φίλον, τὸ στέργειν προσλαβόντα. διαφέρει δὲ τῆς
 φιλίας, ὅτι ἄνευ πάθους ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ στέργειν οἷς
 ὁμιλεῖ· οὐ γὰρ τῷ φιλεῖν ἢ ἐχθαίρειν ἀποδέχεται
 ἕκαστα ὡς δεῖ, ἀλλὰ τῷ τοιοῦτος εἶναι. ὁμοίως ²⁵
 γὰρ πρὸς ἀγνώτας καὶ γνωρίμους καὶ συνήθεις
 καὶ ἀσυνήθεις αὐτὸ ποιήσει, πλὴν καὶ ἐν ἐκάστοις
 ὡς ἀρμόζει· οὐ γὰρ ὁμοίως προσήκει συνήθων καὶ
 6 ὀθνείων φροντίζειν, οὐδ' αὖ λυπεῖν. καθόλου μὲν
 οὖν εἴρηται ὅτι ὡς δεῖ ὁμιλήσει, ἀναφέρων δὲ πρὸς
 τὸ καλὸν καὶ τὸ συμφέρον σγοχάσεται τοῦ ἢ ¹ ³⁰
 7 λυπεῖν ἢ συνηδύνειν. ἔοικε μὲν γὰρ περὶ ἡδονὰς
 καὶ λύπας εἶναι τὰς ἐν ταῖς ὁμιλίαις γνωμένας,
 τούτων δ' ὅσας μὲν αὐτῷ ἐστὶ μὴ καλὸν ἢ βλα-
 βερὸν συνηδύνειν, δυσχερανεῖ, καὶ προαιρήσεται
 λυπεῖν· καὶ τῷ ποιῶντι δ' ἀσχημοσύνην φέρη, καὶ

¹ τοῦ ἢ Imelmann : τοῦ μὴ.

^a At II. vii. 13 it was actually termed φιλία, Friendliness.

^b Sc. by refusing to participate.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. vi. 1-7

objections, but think it a duty to avoid giving pain
2 to those with whom they come in contact. Those
on the contrary who object to everything and do
not care in the least what pain they cause, are called
3 Surly or Peevish. Now it is clear that the dis-
positions described are blameworthy, and that the
middle disposition between them is praiseworthy—
that is, the tendency to acquiesce in the right
things, and likewise to disapprove of the right things,
4 in the right manner. But to this no special name
has been assigned, though it very closely resembles
friendship^a; for he who exemplifies this middle dis-
position is the sort of man we mean by the expres-
sion 'a good friend,' only that includes an element
5 of affection. It differs from friendship in not possess-
ing the emotional factor of affection for one's associ-
ates; since a man of this character takes everything
in the right way not from personal liking or dislike,
but from natural amiability. He will behave with
the same propriety towards strangers and acquaint-
ances alike, towards people with whom he is familiar
and those with whom he is not—though preserving
the shades of distinction proper to each class, since
it is not appropriate to show the same regard or
disregard for the feelings of friends and of strangers.
6 We have said then in general terms that he will
behave in the right manner in society. We mean
that in designing either to give pain or to contribute
pleasure he will be guided by considerations of
7 honour and of expediency. For he seems to be
concerned with pleasure and pain in social inter-
course. He will disapprove of pleasures in which
it is dishonourable or harmful to himself for him to
join, preferring to give pain^b; and he will also dis-

- ταύτην μὴ μικράν, ἢ βλάβην, ἢ δ' ἐναντίωσις 35
 μικρὰν λύπην, οὐκ ἀποδέξεται ἀλλὰ δυσχερανεῖ.
 8 διαφερόντως δ' ὁμιλήσει τοῖς ἐν ἀξιώμασι καὶ τοῖς
 τυχοῦσι, καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ ἥττον γνωρίμοις, ὁμοίως 1127:
 δὲ καὶ κατὰ τὰς ἄλλας διαφοράς, ἐκάστοις ἀπο-
 νέμων τὸ πρέπον, καὶ καθ' αὐτὸ μὲν αἱρούμενος τὸ
 συνηδύνειν, λυπεῖν δ' εὐλαβούμενος, τοῖς δ' ἀπο-
 βαίνουσιν, ἐὰν ᾗ μείζω, συνεπόμενος, λέγω δὲ τῷ 5
 καλῷ καὶ τῷ συμφέροντι. καὶ ἡδονῆς δ' ἕνεκα
 9 τῆς εἰσαυθις μεγάλης¹ μικρὰ λυπήσει. ὁ μὲν οὖν
 μέσος τοιοῦτός ἐστιν, οὐκ ὠνόμασται δέ· τοῦ δὲ
 συνηδύνοντος ὁ μὲν τοῦ ἡδὺς εἶναι στοχαζόμενος
 μὴ δι' ἄλλο τι ἄρεσκος, ὁ δ' ὅπως ὠφέλειά τις
 αὐτῷ γίγνηται εἰς χρήματα καὶ ὅσα διὰ χρημά-
 των, κόλαξ· ὁ δὲ πᾶσι δυσχεραίνων εἴρηται ὅτι 10
 δύσκολος καὶ δύσερις. ἀντικείμεθα δὲ φαίνεται τὰ
 ἄκρα ἑαυτοῖς διὰ τὸ ἀνώνυμον εἶναι τὸ μέσον.
 vii Περὶ τὰ αὐτὰ δὲ σχεδὸν ἐστι καὶ ἡ τῆς ἀλαζο-
 νείας <καὶ εἰρωνείας>² μεσότης. ἀνώνυμος δὲ καὶ
 αὐτῇ· οὐ χεῖρον δὲ καὶ τὰς τοιαύτας ἐπελθεῖν 15
 μᾶλλον ἢ γὰρ ἂν εἰδείημεν τὰ περὶ τὸ ἦθος, καθ'
 ἕκαστον διελθόντες, καὶ μεσότητος εἶναι τὰς
 ἀρετὰς πιστεύσαιμεν ἂν, ἐπὶ πάντων οὕτως ἔχον

¹ μεγάλης om. K^b.² Bywater (<καὶ τῆς εἰρωνείας> Imelmann).^a On *ειρωνεία* see note on II. vii. 12.

approve of and refuse to acquiesce in a pleasure that brings any considerable discredit or harm to the agent, if his opposition will not cause much pain.

- 8 And he will comport himself differently with men of high position and with ordinary people, with persons more and less well known to him, and similarly as regards other distinctions, assigning to each class the proper degree of deference, and, other things apart, preferring to join in the pleasures of his companions and being reluctant to give pain; but being guided by the consequences, that is to say, the effects on his and his friends' credit or interest, if these outweigh the pleasure he will give by compliance. Also he will give a small amount of pain at the moment for the sake of a large amount of pleasure in the future.

- 9 Such is the middle character, although it has no name. The man who always joins in the pleasures of his companions, if he sets out to be pleasant for no ulterior motive, is Obsequious; if he does so for the sake of getting something by it in the shape of money or money's worth, he is a Flatterer. He that disapproves of everything is, as we said, Surly or Peevish. As the mean has no name, the extremes appear to be opposite to each other.

- vii The observance of the mean between Boastfulness and Self-depreciation^a has to do with almost the same things. It also is without a name; but it will be as well to discuss these unnamed excellences with the rest, since we shall the better understand the nature of the moral character if we examine its qualities one by one; and we shall also confirm our belief that the virtues are modes of observing the mean, if we notice how this holds good in every

Obsequious-
ness and
Flattery. .

Surliness.

Sincerity as
regards one's
own merits.

ARISTOTLE

συνιδόντες. ἐν δὴ τῷ συζῆν οἱ μὲν πρὸς ἡδονὴν
 καὶ λύπην ὁμιλοῦντες εἴρηνται, περὶ δὲ τῶν
 ἀληθευόντων τε καὶ ψευδομένων εἵπωμεν ὁμοίως 20
 ἐν λόγοις καὶ πράξεσι καὶ¹ τῷ προσποιήματι.
 2 δοκεῖ δὴ ὁ μὲν ἀλαζὼν προσποιητικὸς τῶν ἐνδρόξων
 εἶναι καὶ μὴ ὑπαρχόντων καὶ μειζόνων ἢ ὑπάρχει,
 3 ὁ δὲ εἴρων ἀνάπαλιν ἀρνείσθαι τὰ ὑπάρχοντα ἢ
 4 ἐλάττω ποιεῖν, ὁ δὲ μέσος αὐθέκαστος τις ὢν
 ἀληθευτικὸς καὶ² τῷ βίῳ καὶ τῷ λόγῳ, τὰ ὑπάρ- 25
 χοντα ὁμολογῶν εἶναι περὶ αὐτόν, καὶ οὔτε μείζω
 5 οὔτε ἐλάττω. ἔστι δὲ τούτων ἕκαστα καὶ ἕνεκά
 τινος ποιεῖν καὶ μηθενός· ἕκαστος δ' οἷός ἐστι,
 τοιαῦτα λέγει καὶ πράττει καὶ οὕτω ζῇ, ἐὰν μὴ
 6 τινος ἕνεκα πράττη. καθ' αὐτὸ δὲ τὸ μὲν ψεῦδος
 φαῦλον καὶ ψεκτόν, τὸ δ' ἀληθές καλὸν καὶ
 ἐπαινετόν· οὕτω δὲ καὶ ὁ μὲν ἀληθευτικὸς μέσος 30
 ὢν ἐπαινετός, οἱ δὲ ψευδόμενοι ἀμφότεροι μὲν
 ψεκτοί, μᾶλλον δ' ὁ ἀλαζών. περὶ ἑκατέρου δ'
 7 εἵπωμεν, πρότερον δὲ περὶ τοῦ ἀληθευτικοῦ. οὐ
 γὰρ περὶ τοῦ ἐν ταῖς ὁμολογίαις ἀληθεύοντος λέ-
 γομεν, οὐδ' ὅσα εἰς ἀδικίαν ἢ δικαιοσύνην συντείνει
 (ἄλλης γὰρ ἂν εἴη ταῦτ' ἀρετῆς), ἀλλ' ἐν οἷς 1127 b
 μηθενὸς τοιούτου διαφέροντος καὶ ἐν λόγῳ καὶ ἐν
 8 βίῳ ἀληθεύει τῷ τὴν ἕξιν τοιούτος εἶναι. δόξειε
 δ' ἂν ὁ τοιούτος ἐπιεικής εἶναι. ὁ γὰρ φιλαλήθης,
 καὶ ἐν οἷς μὴ διαφέρει ἀληθεύων, ἀληθεύσει καὶ 5

¹ [καὶ] Imelmann.² καὶ ? Bywater: καὶ. γ

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. vii. 1-8

instance. Now we have treated of behaviour in society with relation to giving pleasure and pain. Let us now discuss truthfulness and falsehood similarly displayed in word and deed, and in one's personal pretensions.

2 As generally understood then, the boaster is a man who pretends to creditable qualities that he does not possess, or possesses in a lesser degree
3 than he makes out, while conversely the self-depreciator disclaims or disparages good qualities
4 that he does possess. Midway between them is the straightforward sort of man who is sincere both in behaviour and in speech, and admits the truth about his own qualifications without either exaggera-
5 tion or understatement. Both Sincerity and Insincerity may be practised with or without an ulterior motive ; but when a man is acting without ulterior motive, his words, actions, and conduct always reflect
6 his true character. Falsehood is in itself base and reprehensible, and truth noble and praiseworthy ; and similarly the sincere man who stands between the two extremes is praised, and the insincere of both kinds are blamed, more especially the boaster. Let us discuss both Sincerity and Insincerity, beginning with the former.

7 We are speaking not of truthfulness in business relations, nor in matters where justice and injustice are concerned (for these matters would come under a different virtue ^a), but of cases where a man is truthful both in speech and conduct when no considerations of justice come in, from an habitual sincerity of
8 disposition. Such sincerity may be esteemed a moral excellence ; for the lover of truth, who is truthful even when nothing* depends on it, will

ARISTOTLE

- ἐν οἷς διαφέρει ἔτι μᾶλλον· οὐ¹ γὰρ αἰσχρὸν τὸ ψευ-
 δος εὐλαβήσεται, ὃ γε καὶ καθ' αὐτὸ ἠυλαβεῖτο·
 9 ὁ δὲ τοιοῦτος ἐπαινετός. ἐπὶ τὸ ἔλαττον δὲ
 μᾶλλον τοῦ ἀληθοῦς ἀποκλίνει². ἐμμελέστερον γὰρ
 10 φαίνεται διὰ τὸ ἐπαχθεῖς τὰς ὑπερβολὰς εἶναι. ὁ
 δὲ μείζω τῶν ὑπαρχόντων προσποιούμενος³ μη- 10
 θενὸς ἔνεκα φαύλω μὲν ἔοικεν (οὐ γὰρ ἂν ἔχαιρε
 τῷ ψεύδει), μάταιος δὲ φαίνεται μᾶλλον ἢ κακός.
 11 εἰ δ' ἔνεκά τινος, εἰ³ μὲν δόξης ἢ τιμῆς οὐ λίαν
 ψεκτός [ὥς]⁴ ὁ ἀλαζών, ὁ δὲ ἀργυρίου, ἢ ὅσα εἰς
 12 ἀργύριον, ἀσχημονέστερος. οὐκ ἐν τῇ δυνάμει δ'
 ἐστὶν ὁ ἀλαζών, ἀλλ' ἐν τῇ προαιρέσει· κατὰ τὴν 15
 ἕξιν γὰρ καὶ τῷ τοιόσδε εἶναι ἀλαζών ἐστιν· ὥσπερ
 καὶ ψεύστης ὁ μὲν τῷ ψεύδει αὐτῷ χαίρων, ὁ δὲ
 13 δόξης ὀρεγόμενος ἢ κέρδους. οἱ μὲν οὖν δόξης
 χάριν ἀλαζονεύοντο τὰ τοιαῦτα προσποιούνται
 ἐφ' οἷς ἔπαινος ἢ εὐδαιμονισμός, οἱ δὲ κέρδους,
 ὧν καὶ ἀπόλαυσις ἐστὶ τοῖς πέλας καὶ⁵ διαλαθεῖν 20
 ἔστι μὴ ὄντα, οἷον μάντιν σοφὸν ἱατρόν.⁶ διὰ
 τοῦτο οἱ πλείστοι προσποιούνται τὰ τοιαῦτα καὶ
 ἀλαζονεύονται· ἔστι γὰρ ἐν αὐτοῖς τὰ εἰρημμένα.
 14 οἱ δ' εἰρωνες ἐπὶ τὸ ἔλαττον λέγοντες χαριέστεροι
 μὲν τὰ ἥθη φαίνονται, οὐ γὰρ κέρδους ἔνεκα

¹ οὐ L^b: ὥς.² ἀποκλίνει Coraes: ἀποκλίνει.³ εἰ Hel.: ὁ.⁴ [ὥς] om. Hel. (Richards).⁵ καὶ K^b: καὶ ἄ.⁶ σοφὸν ἱατρόν K^b: σοφὸν ἢ ἱατρόν M^bL^b, ἢ ἱατρόν σοφὸν
 O^b, ἱατρόν ἢ μάντιν σοφὸν ΓH^aN^b.^a The true text very probably is 'for example "seer or
 sage physician,"' a verse quotation.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. vii. 8-14

- a fortiori* be truthful when some interest is at stake, since having all along avoided falsehood for its own sake, he will assuredly avoid it when it is morally
 9 base ; and this is a disposition that we praise. The sincere man will diverge from the truth, if at all, in the direction of understatement rather than exaggeration ; since this appears in better taste, as all excess is offensive.
- 10 The man who pretends to more merit than he possesses for no ulterior object seems, it is true, to be a person of inferior character, since otherwise he would not take pleasure in falsehood ; but he appears
 11 to be more of a fool than a knave. When, on the other hand, a man exaggerates his own merits to gain some object, if that object is glory or honour the boaster is not very seriously blamed, but if he boasts to get money or things that fetch money,
 12 this is more unseemly. Boastfulness is not a matter of potential capacity but of deliberate purpose ; a man is a boaster if he has a fixed disposition to boast—a boastful character. Similarly liars are divided into those who like lying for its own sake and those
 13 who lie to get reputation or profit. Those then who boast for the sake of reputation pretend to possess such qualities as are praised and admired ; those who do so for profit pretend to accomplishments that are useful to their fellows and also can be counterfeited without detection ; for instance,^a proficiency in prophecy, philosophy, or medicine. It is because these arts satisfy the two conditions specified that they are the commonest fields of quackery and imposture.
- 14 Self-depreciators, who understate their own merits, seem of a more refined character, for we feel that the

Boastfulness.

Self-depreciation.

ARISTOTLE

- δοκοῦσι λέγειν, ἀλλὰ φεύγοντες τὸ ὀγκηρόν.¹
 15 μάλιστα δὲ καὶ οὗτοι τὰ ἔνδοξα ἀπαρνοῦνται, οἷον ²⁵
 καὶ Σωκράτης ἐποίει. οἱ δὲ² τὰ μικρὰ καὶ τὰ
 φανερά [προσποιοῦμενοι]³ βαυκοπανοῦργοι λέγον-
 ται καὶ εὐκαταφρονητότεροι⁴ εἶσιν· καὶ ἐνίοτε
 ἀλαζονεία φαίνεται, οἷον ἡ τῶν Λακόνων ἐσθής·
 καὶ γὰρ ἡ ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἡ λίαν ἔλλειψις ἀλαζονικόν.
 16 οἱ δὲ μετρίως χρώμενοι τῇ εἰρωνείᾳ καὶ περὶ τὰ ³⁰
 μὴ λίαν ἐμποδῶν καὶ φανερά εἰρωνευόμενοι χαρίεν-
 τες φαίνονται.
 17 Ἀντικεῖσθαι δ' ὁ ἀλαζὼν φαίνεται τῷ ἀληθευ-
 τικῷ· χείρων γάρ.
 viii Οὕσης δὲ καὶ ἀναπαύσεως ἐν τῷ βίῳ, καὶ ἐν
 ταύτῃ διαγωγῇ μετὰ παιδιᾶς, δοκεῖ καὶ ἐνταῦθα
 εἶναι ὁμιλία τις ἐμμελής, καὶ οἷα δεῖ λέγειν καὶ ¹¹²⁸
 ὥς, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἀκούειν· διοίσει δὲ καὶ τὸ ἐν
 2 τοιούτοις λέγειν ἢ τοιούτων ἀκούειν. δηλὸν δ' ὥς
 καὶ περὶ ταύτ' ἐστὶν ὑπερβολή τε καὶ ἔλλειψις τοῦ
 3 μέσου. οἱ μὲν οὖν τῷ γελοίῳ ὑπερβάλλοντες
 βωμολόχοι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι καὶ φορτικοί, γλιχό- ⁵
 μενοι πάντως τοῦ γελοίου, καὶ μᾶλλον στοχαζό-
 μενοι τοῦ γέλωτα ποιῆσαι ἢ τοῦ λέγειν εὐσχήμονα
 καὶ μὴ λυπεῖν τὸν σκωπτόμενον. οἱ δὲ μήτ'
 αὐτοὶ ἂν εἰπόντες μηθὲν γελοῖον τοῖς τε λέγουσι

¹ ὀκλήρῳn K^b.

² δὲ K^b: δὲ καί.

³ [προσποιοῦμενοι] Vahlen: ἀπαρνούμενοι Asp., Hel.

⁴ εὐκαταφρονητότεροι K^b: εὐκαταφρόνητοι.

* Just as boastfulness is chiefly shown in pretending to qualities of value.

^b Aristotle regards the cheapness and simplicity of the Spartans' dress as an affectation; or perhaps the reference is to 'Laconizers' at Athens who affected Spartan manners.

- motive underlying this form of insincerity is not gain but dislike of ostentation. These also ^a mostly disown qualities held in high esteem, as Socrates used
- 15 to do. Those who disclaim merely trifling or obvious distinctions are called affected humbugs, and are decidedly contemptible; and sometimes such mock humility seems to be really boastfulness, like the dress of the Spartans,^b for extreme negligence in dress, as well as excessive attention to it, has a touch
- 16 of ostentation. But a moderate use of self-depreciation in matters not too commonplace and obvious has a not ungraceful air.
- 17 The boaster seems to be the opposite of the sincere man, because Boastfulness is worse than Self-depreciation.
- viii But life also includes relaxation, and one form of ^{Wittiness.} relaxation is playful conversation. Here, too, we feel that there is a certain standard of good taste in social behaviour, and a certain propriety in the sort of things we say and in our manner of saying them, and also in the sort of things we allow to be said to us; and it will also concern us whether those in whose company we speak or to whom we listen
- 2 conform to the same rules of propriety. And it is clear that in these matters too it is possible either to exceed or to fall short of the mean.
- 3 Those then who go to excess in ridicule are thought to be buffoons and vulgar fellows, who itch to have their joke at all costs, and are more concerned to raise a laugh than to keep within the bounds of decorum and avoid giving pain to the object of their raillery. Those on the other hand who never by any chance say anything funny themselves and take

δυσχεραίνοντες ἄγροικοι¹ καὶ σκληροὶ δοκοῦσιν
 εἶναι. οἱ δ' ἐμμελῶς παίζοντες εὐτράπελοι προσ-¹⁰
 αγορεύονται, οἷον εὐτροποι· τοῦ γὰρ ἥθους αἱ
 τοιαῦται δοκοῦσι κινήσεις εἶναι, ὥσπερ δὲ τὰ
 σώματα ἐκ τῶν κινήσεων κρίνεται, οὕτω καὶ τὰ
 4 ἦθη. ἐπιπολάζοντος δὲ τοῦ γελοίου, καὶ τῶν
 πλείστων χαιρόντων τῇ παιδιᾷ καὶ τῷ σκώπτειν
 μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ, καὶ οἱ βωμολόχοι εὐτράπελοι προσ-¹⁵
 αγορεύονται ὡς χαρίεντες· ὅτι δὲ διαφέρουσι, καὶ
 5 οὐ μικρόν, ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων δῆλον. τῇ μέσῃ δ'
 ἕξει οἰκείον καὶ ἡ ἐπιδεξιότης ἐστίν· τοῦ δ' ἐπι-
 δεξίου ἐστὶ τοιαῦτα λέγειν καὶ ἀκούειν οἷα τῷ
 ἐπιεικεῖ καὶ ἐλευθερίῳ ἀρμόττει· ἔστι γάρ τινα
 πρέποντα τῷ τοιούτῳ λέγειν ἐν παιδιᾷς μέρει καὶ²⁰
 ἀκούειν, καὶ ἡ τοῦ ἐλευθερίου παιδιὰ διαφέρει τῆς
 τοῦ ἀνδραποδώδους, καὶ² πεπαιδευμένου καὶ ἀπαι-
 6 δεύτου. ἴδοι δ' ἂν τις καὶ ἐκ τῶν κωμωδιῶν³ τῶν
 παλαιῶν καὶ τῶν καινῶν· τοῖς μὲν γὰρ ἦν γελοῖον
 ἡ αἰσχρολογία, τοῖς δὲ μᾶλλον ἡ ὑπόνοια· διαφέρει
 7 δ' οὐ μικρόν ταῦτα πρὸς εὐσχημοσύνην. πότερον²⁵
 οὖν τὸν εὖ σκώπτοντα ὀριστέον τῷ λέγειν μὴ
 ἀπρεπῆ⁴ ἐλευθερίῳ, ἢ τῷ μὴ λυπεῖν τὸν ἀκούοντα,
 ἢ καὶ τέρπειν; ἢ καὶ τό γε τοιοῦτον ἀόριστον;
 8 ἄλλο γὰρ ἄλλῳ μισητόν τε καὶ ἡδύ. τοιαῦτα δὲ
 καὶ ἀκούσεται· ἃ γὰρ ὑπομένει ἀκούων, ταῦτα
 9 κἂν⁵ ποιεῖν δοκεῖ. οὐ δὴ πᾶν ποιήσῃ⁶. τὸ γὰρ³⁰
 σκῶμμα λοιδόρημά τί ἐστίν, οἱ δὲ νομοθέται ἐνια

¹ ἄγροικοι K^b: ἄγριοι. ² καί: καὶ αἱ τοῦ L^b, καὶ αὐ τοῦ M^b.

³ κωμωδῶν ? Richards.

⁴ μὴ ἀπρεπῆ K^b: μὴ ἃ πρέπει Γ, ἃ πρέπει L^bM^b.

⁵ κἂν Burnet: καί.

⁶ ποιήσῃ: ἀκούσεται Zwinger, λέξει Coraes.

^a εὐτράπελοι, lit. 'turning well,' nimble-witted.

offence at those who do, are considered boorish and morose. Those who jest with good taste are called witty^a or versatile—that is to say, full of good turns ; for such sallies seem to spring from the character, and we judge men's characters, like their bodies, by
4 their movements. But as matter for ridicule is always ready to hand, and as most men are only too fond of jokes and raillery, even buffoons are called witty and pass for clever fellows ; though it is clear from what has been said that Wit is different,
5 and widely different, from Buffoonery. The middle disposition is further characterized by the quality of tact, the possessor of which will say, and allow to be said to him, only the sort of things that are suitable to a virtuous man and a gentleman : since there is a certain propriety in what such a man will say and hear in jest, and the jesting of a gentleman differs from that of a person of servile nature, as does that of an educated from that of an uneducated man.
6 The difference may be seen by comparing the old and the modern comedies ; the earlier dramatists found their fun in obscenity, the moderns prefer innuendo, which marks a great advance in decorum.
7 Can we then define proper raillery by saying that its jests are never unbecoming to gentlemen, or that it avoids giving pain or indeed actually gives pleasure to its object ? Or is it impossible to define anything so elusive ? for tastes differ as to what is offensive and
8 what amusing. Whatever rule we lay down, the same will apply to the things that a man should allow to be said to him, since we feel that deeds which a man permits to be ascribed to him he would not stop
9 at actually doing. Hence a man will draw the line at some jokes ; for raillery is a sort of vilification, and

ARISTOTLE

- λοιδορεῖν κωλύουσιν· ἔδει δ' ἴσως καὶ σκώπτειν.
 10 ὁ δὲ χαρίεις καὶ ἐλευθέριος οὕτως ἔξει, οἷον νόμος
 ὦν ἑαυτῷ. τοιοῦτος μὲν οὖν ὁ μέσος ἐστίν, εἴτ'
 ἐπιδέξιος εἴτ' εὐτράπελος λέγεται. ὁ δὲ βωμο-
 λόχος ἥττων ἐστὶ τοῦ γελοίου, καὶ οὔτε ἑαυτοῦ
 οὔτε τῶν ἄλλων ἀπεχόμενος, εἰ γέλωτα ποιήσῃ, 35
 καὶ τοιαῦτα λέγων ὦν οὐθὲν ἂν εἴποι ὁ χαρίεις, 1128 b
 ἔνια δ' οὐδ' ἂν ἀκούσαι. ὁ δ' ἄγροικος¹ εἰς τὰς
 τοιαύτας ὁμιλίας ἀχρεῖος· οὐθὲν γὰρ συμβαλλόμε-
 11 νος πᾶσι δυσχεραίνει· δοκεῖ δὲ ἡ ἀνάπαυσις καὶ
 ἡ παιδιὰ ἐν τῷ βίῳ εἶναι ἀναγκαῖον.
 12 Τρεῖς οὖν αἱ εἰρημέναι ἐν τῷ βίῳ μεσότητες, 5
 εἰσὶ δὲ πᾶσαι περὶ λόγων τινῶν καὶ πράξεων
 κοινωνίαν. διαφέρουσι δ' ὅτι ἡ μὲν περὶ ἀλήθειάν
 ἐστίν, αἱ δὲ περὶ τὸ ἡδύ. τῶν δὲ περὶ τὴν ἡδονὴν
 ἡ μὲν ἐν ταῖς παιδιαῖς, ἡ δ' ἐν ταῖς κατὰ τὸν ἄλλον
 βίον ὁμιλίαις.
 ix Περὶ δὲ αἰδοῦς ὥς τινος ἀρετῆς οὐ προσήκει 10
 2 λέγειν· πάθει γὰρ μᾶλλον ἔοικεν ἢ ἔξει. ὀρίζεται
 γοῦν φόβος τις ἀδοξίας, ἀποτελεῖται δὲ τῷ περὶ
 τὰ δεινὰ φόβῳ παραπλήσιον· ἐρυθραίνονται γὰρ
 οἱ αἰδεχυνόμενοι, οἱ δὲ τὸν θάνατον φοβούμενοι
 ὠχρίῳσιν· σωματικὰ δὲ φαίνεται πως εἶναι ἀμφο- 15
 3 οῦ πάσῃ δ' ἡλικίᾳ τὸ πάθος ἀρμόζει, ἀλλὰ τῇ νέᾳ·
 οἰόμεθα γὰρ δεῖν τοὺς τηλικούτους αἰδήμονας
 εἶναι διὰ τὸ πάθει ζῶντας πολλὰ ἀμαρτάνειν, ὑπὸ

¹ ἄγροικος Coraes : ἄγριος.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IV. viii. 9—ix. 3

some forms of vilification are forbidden by law ; perhaps some forms of raillery ought to be prohibited also.

- 10 The cultivated gentleman will therefore regulate his wit, and will be as it were a law to himself.

Such then is the middle character, whether he be called 'tactful' or 'witty.' The buffoon is one who cannot resist a joke ; he will not keep his tongue off himself or anyone else, if he can raise a laugh, and will say things which a man of refinement would never say, and some of which he would not even allow to be said to him. The boor is of no use in playful conversation : he contributes nothing and takes

Buffoonery.

Boorishness.

- 11 offence at everything ; yet relaxation and amusement seem to be a necessary element in life.

- 12 We have now discussed three modes of observing the mean in our behaviour, all of which are concerned with conversation or with common occupations of some sort. They differ in that one is concerned with truthfulness and the others with being pleasant. Of the two that deal with pleasure, one is displayed in amusement, and the other in the general intercourse of life.

- ix Modesty cannot properly be described as a virtue, for it seems to be a feeling rather than a disposition ; at least it is defined as a kind of fear of disrepute, and in its effects it is analogous to the fear of danger ; for people who are ashamed blush, while those in fear of their lives turn pale ; both therefore appear to be in a sense bodily affections, and this indicates a feeling rather than a disposition.

Modesty.

- 3 The feeling of modesty is not suitable to every age, but only to the young. We think it proper for the young to be modest, because as they live by feeling they often err, and modesty may keep them

ARISTOTLE

τῆς αἰδοῦς δὲ κωλύεσθαι· καὶ ἐπαινοῦμεν τῶν
 μὲν νέων τοὺς αἰδήμονας, πρεσβύτερον δ' οὐδεὶς 20
 ἂν ἐπαινέσειεν ὅτι αἰσχυνηλός· οὐθὲν γὰρ οἰόμεθα
 4 δεῖν αὐτὸν πράττειν ἐφ' οἷς ἐστὶν αἰσχύνη. οὐδὲ
 γὰρ ἐπιεικοῦς ἐστὶν ἡ αἰσχύνη, εἴπερ γίνεταί ἐπὶ
 5 τοῖς φαύλοις· οὐ γὰρ πρακτέον τὰ τοιαῦτα (εἰ δ'
 ἐστὶ τὰ μὲν κατ' ἀλήθειαν αἰσχυρὰ τὰ δὲ κατὰ
 δόξαν, οὐθὲν διαφέρει· οὐδέτερα γὰρ πρακτέα), ὥστ' 25
 6 οὐκ¹ αἰσχυντέον· φαύλου δέ, καὶ τῷ² εἶναι τοιοῦτον
 οἷον πράττειν τι τῶν αἰσχυρῶν. τὸ δ' οὕτως ἔχειν
 ὥστ' εἰ πράξειέ τι τῶν τοιούτων αἰσχύνεσθαι, καὶ
 διὰ τοῦτ' οἴεσθαι ἐπιεικῇ εἶναι, ἄτοπον· ἐπὶ τοῖς
 ἐκουσίοις γὰρ ἡ αἰδώς, ἐκὼν δὲ ὁ ἐπιεικὴς οὐδέ-
 7 ποτε πράξει τὰ φαῦλα. εἴη δ' ἂν ἡ αἰδὼς ἐξ
 ὑποθέσεως ἐπιεικές· εἰ γὰρ πράξει, αἰσχύνειτ' ἂν 30
 οὐκ ἔστι δὲ τοῦτο περὶ τὰς ἀρετάς. εἰ δ' ἡ ἀν-
 αίσχυντία φαῦλον καὶ τὸ μὴ αἰδεῖσθαι τὰ αἰσχυρὰ
 πράττειν, οὐθὲν μᾶλλον τὸ τοιαῦτα πράττοντα
 8 αἰσχύνεσθαι ἐπιεικές· οὐκ ἔστι δ' οὐδ' ἡ ἐγκράτεια
 ἀρετὴ, ἀλλὰ τις μικτὴ· δειχθήσεται δὲ περὶ αὐτῆς 35
 ἐν τοῖς ὑστερον. νῦν δὲ περὶ δικαιοσύνης εἴπωμεν.

¹ οὐδ' Γ.

² καὶ τῷ ? Bywater : καὶ τὸ (τὸ Γ, διὰ τὸ Rassow).

in check ; and we praise young people when they are modest, though no one would praise an older man for being shamefaced, since we think he ought not to do anything of which he need be ashamed.

4 For indeed the virtuous man does not feel shame,
 5 if shame is the feeling caused by base actions ; since one ought not to do base actions (the distinction between acts really shameful and those reputed to be so is immaterial, since one ought not to do either),
 6 and so one never ought to feel shame. Shame is a mark of a base man, and springs from a character capable of doing a shameful act. And it is absurd that, because a man is of such a nature that he is ashamed if he does a shameful act, he should therefore think himself virtuous, since actions to cause shame must be voluntary, but a virtuous man will never
 7 voluntarily do a base action. Modesty can only be virtuous conditionally—in the sense that a good man would be ashamed *if* he were to do so and so ; but the virtues are not conditional. And though shamelessness and not shrinking from shameful actions is base, this does not prove that to be ashamed when one
 8 does base actions is virtuous—any more than Self-restraint is a virtue, and not rather a mixture of virtue and vice. But this will be explained later.^a Let us now speak of Justice.

^a In Bk. vii.

E

- i Περὶ δὲ δικαιοσύνης καὶ ἀδικίας σκεπτέον περὶ 1129
 ποίας τε τυγχάνουσιν οὔσαι πράξεις καὶ ποία
 μεσότης ἐστὶν ἡ δικαιοσύνη, καὶ τὸ δίκαιον τίνων 3
 2 μέσον· ἡ δὲ σκέψις ἡμῖν ἔστω κατὰ τὴν αὐτὴν
 μέθοδον τοῖς προειρημένοις.
 3 Ὅρῳμεν δὴ πάντας τὴν τοιαύτην ἔξω βου-
 λομένους λέγειν δικαιοσύνην ἀφ' ἧς πρακτικοὶ
 τῶν δικαίων εἰσὶ, καὶ ἀφ' ἧς δικαιοπραγοῦσι καὶ
 βούλονται τὰ δίκαια· τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον καὶ
 περὶ ἀδικίας, ἀφ' ἧς ἀδικοῦσι καὶ βούλονται τὰ 10
 ἀδिका. διὸ καὶ ἡμῖν πρῶτον ὥς ἐν τύπῳ ὑπο-
 4 κείσθω ταῦτα. οὐδὲ γὰρ τὸν αὐτὸν ἔχει τρόπον
 ἐπὶ τε τῶν ἐπιστημῶν καὶ δυνάμεων καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν

^a In what follows *δικαιοσύνη* is found to possess both the wider meaning of Righteousness in general, covering all right conduct in relation to others, and the narrower sense of the virtue of right conduct in relation to others where gain or loss (whether to the agent or to other parties) is involved. *δικαιοσύνη* in this narrower sense is the special Moral Virtue which is the subject of Book V.; it would be described in English sometimes as Justice, sometimes as Honesty or uprightness. The related adjectives and verbs have various connotations connected with the various meanings of *δικαιοσύνη* both in its wider and in its narrower usage. For instance, *-ὰ δίκαια* means sometimes 'just acts' in the English sense, sometimes any acts in conformity

BOOK V

i IN regard to Justice^a and Injustice, we have to enquire what sort of actions precisely they are concerned with, in what sense Justice is the observance of a mean, and what are the extremes between which
2 that which is just is a mean. Our enquiry may follow the same procedure as our preceding investigations.

Bk. V. The Moral Virtues concluded : Justice. c.1. Justice and Injustice, their various senses.

3 Now we observe that everybody means by Justice that moral disposition which renders men apt to do just things, and which causes them to act justly and to wish what is just ; and similarly by Injustice that disposition which makes men act unjustly and wish what is unjust. Let us then assume this definition to start with as broadly correct.

4 The fact is that it is not the same with dispositions as with sciences and faculties. It seems that the

with the law, sometimes 'rights' or 'claims,' *i.e.*, any consideration which by law, equity, or custom, certain persons have a right to expect from certain others. Or again *ἀδίκην* means not only to act unjustly, or dishonestly, but also to do, or have done, any wrongful injury to another, or any wrongful or illegal act, and so, as a legal term, to be guilty of a breach of the law.

In translating however, if the connexion of all these various meanings in the writer's mind is to be represented, it seems necessary to keep the words 'justice,' 'injustice,' etc., throughout, in spite of their occasional unsuitability to the context.

ἔξεων· δύναμις μὲν γὰρ καὶ ἐπιστήμη δοκεῖ τῶν ἐναντίων ἢ αὐτὴ εἶναι, ἔξις δ' ἢ ἐναντία τῶν ἐναντίων οὐ, οἷον ἀπὸ τῆς ὑγείας οὐ πράττεται 15 τὰ ἐναντία ἀλλὰ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ μόνον· λέγομεν γὰρ ὑγιεινῶς βαδίζειν ὅταν βαδίζῃ ὡς ἂν ὁ ὑγιαίνων.

5 Πολλάκις μὲν οὖν γνωρίζεται ἢ ἐναντία ἔξις ἀπὸ τῆς ἐναντίας, πολλάκις δὲ αἱ ἔξεις ἀπὸ τῶν ὑποκειμένων· ἕαν τε γὰρ ἡ εὐεξία ἢ φανερά, καὶ ἡ καχεξία φανερά γίνεται, καὶ ἐκ τῶν εὐεκτικῶν ἢ 20 εὐεξία καὶ ἐκ ταύτης τὰ εὐεκτικά. εἰ γὰρ ἔστω ἡ εὐεξία πυκνότης σαρκός, ἀνάγκη καὶ τὴν καχεξίαν εἶναι μανσότητα σαρκός καὶ τὸ εὐεκτικὸν τὸ ποιητικὸν πυκνότητος ἐν σαρκί.

6 Ἀκολουθεῖ δ' ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ, ἔαν θάτερα¹ πλεοναχῶς λέγηται, καὶ θάτερα¹. πλεοναχῶς λέγεσθαι, οἷον εἰ τὸ δίκαιον, καὶ τὸ ἄδικον καὶ ἡ 7 ἄδικία.² ἔοικε δὲ πλεοναχῶς λέγεσθαι ἢ δικαιοσύνη καὶ ἡ ἄδικία, ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ σύνεγγυς εἶναι τὴν ὁμωνυμίαν³ αὐτῶν λανθάνει, καὶ οὐχ ὥσπερ ἐπὶ τῶν πόρρω δήλη μᾶλλον· (ἢ γὰρ διαφορὰ πολλή ἢ κατὰ τὴν ἰδέαν) οἷον ὅτι καλεῖται κλείς ὁμωνύμως ἢ τε ὑπὸ τὸν αὐχένα τῶν ζώων 30

¹ θάτερον . . . θάτερον Γ.

² καὶ ἡ ἀδικία om. M^bO^b.

³ ἡ ὁμωνυμία Thurot.

^a For instance, medicine studies both health and disease. Cf. c. ix. 16.

^b i.e., it does not also mean walking lame.

^c Because a faculty or science is the same for opposite things.

^d Literally 'that which has to do with good condition': the word here slightly shifts its meaning, for just above it meant 'that which is in good condition.'

same faculty or science deals with opposite things^a; but a disposition or condition which produces a certain result does not also produce the opposite results; for example, health does not give rise to unhealthy actions, but only to healthy ones: healthy walking means walking as a healthy man walks.^b

- 5 Hence^c sometimes the nature of one of two opposite dispositions is inferred from the other, sometimes dispositions are known from the things in which they are found; for instance, if we know what good bodily condition is, we know from this what bad condition is as well, but we also know what good condition is from bodies in good condition, and know what bodies are in good condition from knowing what good condition is. Thus, supposing good condition is firmness of flesh, bad condition must be flabbiness of flesh, and a diet productive of good condition^d must be a diet producing firmness of flesh.
- 6 Also, if one of two correlative groups of words is used in several senses, it follows as a rule that the other is used in several senses too: for example, if 'just' has more than one meaning, so also has
- 7 'unjust' and 'Injustice.' Now it appears that the term Justice and Injustice are used in several senses, but as the equivocal uses are closely connected, the equivocation is not detected; whereas in the case of widely different things called by ^a a ~~common~~ name, the equivocation is comparatively obvious: for example (the difference being considerable when it is one of external form), the equivocal use of the word *kleis* (key) to denote both the bone^e at the base of the neck and the instrument with which we lock our doors.

^a The clavicle (*clavis*, a key), or[•] collar-bone.

- 8 καὶ ἥ τὰς θύρας κλείουσιν. εἰλήφθω δὴ ὁ ἄδικος
 ποσαχῶς λέγεται. δοκεῖ δὴ¹ ὁ τε παράνομος
 ἄδικος εἶναι καὶ ὁ πλεονέκτης καὶ ἄνιστος,² ὥστε
 δῆλον ὅτι καὶ [ὁ]³ δίκαιος ἔσται ὁ τε νόμιμος
 καὶ ὁ ἴσος. τὸ μὲν δίκαιον ἄρα τὸ νόμιμον καὶ
 τὸ ἴσον, τὸ δ' ἄδικον τὸ παράνομον καὶ τὸ ἄντιστον. 1129
- 9 —ἐπεὶ δέ⁴ πλεονέκτης ὁ ἄδικος, περὶ τὰγαθὰ
 ἔσται, οὐ πάντα, ἀλλὰ περὶ ὅσα εὐτυχία καὶ
 ἀτυχία, ἃ ἐστὶ μὲν ἀπλῶς αἰεὶ ἀγαθὰ, τινὲ δ' οὐκ
 αἰεὶ. οἱ δ' ἄνθρωποι ταῦτα εὐχονται καὶ διώκουσιν·
 δεῖ δ' οὐ, ἀλλ' εὐχεσθαι μὲν τὰ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὰ⁵
 καὶ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθὰ εἶναι, αἰρεῖσθαι δὲ τὰ αὐτοῖς
- 10 ἀγαθὰ.—ὁ δ' ἄδικος οὐκ αἰεὶ τὸ πλεον αἰρεῖται,
 ἀλλὰ καὶ τὸ ἔλαττον ἐπὶ τῶν ἀπλῶς κακῶν· ἀλλ'
 ὅτι δοκεῖ καὶ τὸ μείον κακὸν ἀγαθόν πως εἶναι,
 τοῦ δ' ἀγαθοῦ ἐστὶν ἡ πλεονεξία, διὰ τοῦτο δοκεῖ
- 11 πλεονέκτης εἶναι. ἔστω⁵ δ' ἄνιστος· τοῦτο γὰρ¹⁰
 12 περιέχει καὶ κοινόν.⁶ ἐπεὶ δ' ὁ παράνομος
 ἄδικος ἦν ὁ δὲ νόμιμος δίκαιος, δῆλον ὅτι πάντα
 τὰ νόμιμά ἐστὶ πως δίκαια· τὰ τε γὰρ ὠρισμένα
 ὑπὸ τῆς νομοθετικῆς νόμιμά ἐστι, καὶ ἕκαστον

¹ δὴ Bywater : δέ.

² ἄδικος pr. K^b, ὁ ἄνιστος vulg.

³ Bywater.

⁴ δέ καὶ L^b.

⁵ ἔστω Vermehren : ἐστι.

⁶ ~~περὶ~~ κοινόν add. καὶ παράνομος· τοῦτο γὰρ, ἡ παρανομία ἦτοι
 ἡ ἀνισότης, περιέχει πᾶσαν ἀδικίαν καὶ κοινόν ἐστὶ πάσης ἀδικίας
 L^bΓ.

^a The word ἴσος means both 'equal' and 'equitable' or 'fair.'

^b Here some mss. add 'Also a law-breaker, for this, law-breaking or else unfairness, includes all injustice and is a common term for all injustice.'

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. i. 8-12

8 Let us then ascertain in how many senses a man is said to be 'unjust.' Now the term 'unjust' is held to apply both to the man who breaks the law and the man who takes more than his due, the unfair ^a man. Hence it is clear that the law-abiding man and the fair man will both be just. 'The just' therefore means that which is lawful and that which is equal or fair, and 'the unjust' means that which is illegal and that which is unequal or unfair.

Legality
and Equal-
ity or Fair-
ness.

9 Again, as the unjust man is one who takes the larger share, he will be unjust in respect of good things; not all good things, but those on which good and bad fortune depend. These though always good in the absolute sense, are not always good for a particular person. Yet these are the goods men pray for and pursue, although they ought not to do so; they ought, while choosing the things that are good for them, to pray that what is good absolutely may also be good for them.

10 The unjust man does not however always choose the larger share: of things that, speaking absolutely, are bad he chooses the smaller share; but nevertheless he is thought to take more than his due, because the lesser of two evils seems in a sense to be a good, and taking more than one's due means taking more than one's due of good. Let us call him 'unfair,' for that is a comprehensive term, and includes both taking too much of good things and too little of bad things.^b

12 Again, we saw that the law-breaker is unjust and the law-abiding man just. It is therefore clear that all lawful things are just in one sense of the word, for what is lawful is decided by legislature, and the several decisions of the legislature we call rules of

ARISTOTLE

- 13 τούτων δίκαιον εἶναι φαμέν. οἱ δὲ νόμοι ἀγορεύουσι περὶ ἀπάντων στοχαζόμενοι ἢ τοῦ κοινῇ 15
 συμφέροντος πᾶσιν [ἢ τοῖς ἀρίστοις]¹ ἢ τοῖς
 κυρίοις κατ' ἀρετὴν² ἢ κατ' ἄλλον τινὰ τρόπον
 τοιοῦτον· ὥστε ἓνα μὲν τρόπον δίκαια λέγομεν τὰ
 ποιητικὰ καὶ φυλακτικὰ τῆς εὐδαιμονίας καὶ τῶν
 14 μορίων αὐτῆς τῇ πολιτικῇ κοινωνίᾳ. προστάττει
 δ' ὁ νόμος καὶ τὰ τοῦ ἀνδρείου ἔργα ποιεῖν, οἷον 20
 μὴ λείπειν τὴν τάξιν μηδὲ φεύγειν μηδὲ ρίπτειν
 τὰ ὄπλα, καὶ τὰ τοῦ σώφρονος, οἷον μὴ μοιχεύειν
 μηδ' ὑβρίζειν, καὶ τὰ τοῦ πρᾶου, οἷον μὴ τύπτειν
 μηδὲ κακηγορεῖν, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ κατὰ τὰς ἄλλας
 ἀρετὰς καὶ μοχθηρίας τὰ μὲν κελεύων τὰ δ' ἀπαγορεύων,
 ὁρθῶς μὲν ὁ κείμενος ὁρθῶς, χεῖρον δ' ὁ 25
 15 ἀπεσχεδιασμένος. αὕτη μὲν οὖν ἡ δικαιοσύνη ἀρετὴ
 μὲν ἐστὶ τελεία, ἀλλ' οὐχ ἀπλῶς ἀλλὰ πρὸς ἕτερον.
 καὶ διὰ τοῦτο πολλάκις κρατίστη τῶν ἀρετῶν εἶναι
 δοκεῖ ἡ δικαιοσύνη, καὶ οὐθ' ἔσπερος οὐθ' ἑῷος
 οὕτω θαυμαστός· καὶ παροιμιαζόμενοί φαμεν

ἐν δὲ δικαιοσύνῃ συλλήβδην πᾶς ἀρετὴ νί.³ 30

καὶ τελεία μάλιστα ἀρετὴ, ὅτι τῆς τελείας ἀρετῆς
 χρήσις ἐστίν. τελεία δ' ἐστίν,⁴ ὅτι ὁ ἔχων αὐτὴν
 καὶ πρὸς ἕτερον δύναται τῇ ἀρετῇ χρῆσθαι, ἀλλ'
 οὐ μόνον κατ' αὐτόν· πολλοὶ γὰρ ἐν μὲν τοῖς
 οἰκείοις τῇ ἀρετῇ δύνανται χρῆσθαι, ἐν δὲ τοῖς

¹ Spengel.

² κατ' ἀρετὴν om. K^b: ἢ κατ' ἀρετὴν Γ.

³ νί ed.: ἐνι (ἐστὶ Γ^M^b Ald.).

⁴ καὶ τελεία μάλιστα et τελεία δ' ἐστίν inter se mutanda Jackson.

^a According to a scholiast, this is a quotation, slightly altered, from the lost play *Melanippe* of Euripides (fr. 490 Dindorf).

13 justice. Now all the various pronouncements of the law aim either at the common interest of all, or at the interest of a ruling class determined either by excellence or in some other similar way ; so that in one of its senses the term ' just ' is applied to anything that produces and preserves the happiness, or the component parts of the happiness, of the political community.

14 But the law also prescribes certain conduct : the conduct of a brave man, for example not to desert one's post, not to run away, not to throw down one's arms ; that of a temperate man, for example not to commit adultery or outrage ; that of a gentle man, for example not to strike, not to speak evil ; and so with actions exemplifying the rest of the virtues and vices, commanding these and forbidding those—rightly if the law has been rightly enacted, not so well if it has been made at random.

15 Justice then in this sense is perfect Virtue, though with a qualification, namely that it is displayed towards others. This is why Justice is often thought to be the chief of the virtues, and more sublime ' or than the evening or the morning star ' ^a ; and we have the proverb—

Justice in the general sense of Virtue in relation to others.

In Justice is all Virtue found in sum.

And Justice is perfect virtue because it is the practice of perfect virtue ; and perfect in a special degree, ^b because its possessor can practise his virtue towards others and not merely by himself ; for there are many who can practise virtue in their own private affairs but cannot do so in their relations with another.

^b In the mss. the words ' in a special degree ' follow ' perfect ' in the line before.

ARISTOTLE

- 16 πρὸς ἕτερον ἀδυνατοῦσιν. καὶ διὰ τοῦτο εὖ 1130:
δοκεῖ ἔχειν τὸ τοῦ Βίαντος, ὅτι “ ἀρχὰ¹ ἀνδρα
δείξει.” πρὸς ἕτερον γὰρ καὶ ἐν κοινωνίᾳ ἤδη
17 ὁ ἄρχων. διὰ δὲ τὸ αὐτὸ τοῦτο καὶ ἀλλότριον
ἀγαθὸν δοκεῖ εἶναι ἡ δικαιοσύνη μόνῃ τῶν ἀρετῶν,
ὅτι πρὸς ἕτερόν ἐστιν· ἄλλω γὰρ τὰ συμφέροντα 5
18 πράττει, ἢ ἄρχοντι ἢ κοινωνῶ. κάκιστος μὲν
οὖν ὁ καὶ πρὸς αὐτὸν καὶ πρὸς τοὺς φίλους χρώ-
μενος τῇ μοχθηρίᾳ, ἄριστος δ’ οὐχ ὁ πρὸς αὐτὸν
τῇ ἀρετῇ ἀλλ’ ὁ² πρὸς ἕτερον· τοῦτο γὰρ ἔργον
19 χαλεπόν. αὕτη μὲν οὖν ἡ δικαιοσύνη οὐ μέρος
ἀρετῆς ἀλλ’ ὅλη ἀρετὴ ἐστίν, οὐδ’ ἡ ἐναντία 10
20 ἀδικία μέρος κακίας ἀλλ’ ὅλη κακία. (τί δὲ
διαφέρει ἡ ἀρετὴ καὶ ἡ δικαιοσύνη αὕτη, δῆλον
ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων· ἔστι μὲν γὰρ ἡ αὕτη, τὸ δ’
εἶναι οὐ τὸ αὐτό, ἀλλ’ ἡ μὲν πρὸς ἕτερον, δι-
καιοσύνη, ἡ δὲ τοιάδε ἕξις ἀπλῶς, ἀρετή.)
ii Ζητοῦμεν δέ γε τὴν ἐν μέρει ἀρετῆς δικαιοσύνην·
ἔστι γάρ τις, ὡς φαμέν· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ 15
2 ἀδικίας τῆς κατὰ μέρος. σημεῖον δ’ ὅτι ἔστιν·
κατὰ μὲν γὰρ τὰς ἄλλας μοχθηρίας ὁ ἐνεργῶν
ἀδικεῖ μόνον, πλεονεκτεῖ δ’ οὐδέν, οἷον ὁ ρίψας τὴν
ἀσπίδα διὰ δειλίαν ἢ κακῶς εἰπὼν διὰ χαλεπό-
τητα ἢ οὐ βοηθήσας χρήμασι δι’ ἀνελευθερίαν·

¹ ἀρχὴ K^b.

² ἀλλ’ ὁ ΓΗ^aΝ^bΟ^b : ἀλλὰ.

^a Put into the mouth of the sophist Thrasymachus in Plato's *Republic*, 343 c. -

^b Cf. vi. viii. 1.

- 16 This is why we approve the saying of Bias, ' Office will show a man ' ; for in office one is brought into relation with others and becomes a member of a community.
- 17 The same reason, namely that it involves relationship with someone else, accounts for the view ^a that Justice alone of the virtues is ' the good of others,' because it does what is for the advantage of another,
- 18 either a ruler or an associate. As then the worst man is he who practises vice towards his friends as well as in regard to himself, so the best is not he who practises virtue in regard to himself but he who practises it towards others ; for that is a difficult task.
- 19 Justice in this sense then is not a part of Virtue, but the whole of Virtue ; and its opposite Injustice
- 20 is not a part of Vice but the whole of Vice (the distinction between Virtue and Justice in this sense being clear from what has been said : they are the same quality of mind, but differently conceived ^b ; regarded as displayed in relation to others, this quality is Justice, regarded simply as a disposition of a certain kind, it is Virtue).
- ii What we are investigating, however, is the Justice which is a part of Virtue, since we hold that there is such a thing as Justice in this sense ; and similarly we are investigating Injustice in the particular sense.
- 2 The existence of the latter is proved by the following considerations : (1) When a man displays the other vices—for instance, throws away his shield, from Cowardice, or uses abusive language, from Bad Temper, or refuses to assist a friend with money, from Meanness—though he acts unjustly, he is not taking more than his share of anything ; whereas

Justice and Injustice in the special sense.

ARISTOTLE

ὅταν δὲ πλεονεκτῇ, πολλάκις κατ' οὐδεμίαν τῶν 20
 τοιούτων, ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ κατὰ πάσας, κατὰ
 πονηρίαν δέ γε τινά (ψέγομεν γάρ) καὶ κατ'
 3 ἀδικίαν. ἔστιν ἄρ' ¹ ἄλλη τις ἀδικία ὡς μέρος
 τῆς ὅλης, καὶ ἀδικόν τι ἐν μέρει τοῦ ὅλου ἀδίκου
 4 τοῦ παρὰ τὸν νόμον. ἔτι ² εἰ ὁ μὲν τοῦ κερδαίνειν
 ἕνεκα μοιχεύει καὶ προσλαμβάνων, ὁ δὲ προσ- 25
 τιθεὶς καὶ ζημιούμενος δι' ἐπιθυμίαν, οὗτος μὲν
 ἀκόλαστος δόξειεν ἂν εἶναι μᾶλλον ἢ πλεονέκτης,
 ἐκεῖνος δ' ἀδικος, ἀκόλαστος δ' οὐ· δηλὸν ἄρα
 5 ὅτι διὰ τὸ κερδαίνειν. ἔτι περὶ μὲν τᾶλλα πάντα
 ἀδικήματα γίνεται ἡ ἐπαναφορὰ ἐπὶ τινι μοχθηρίαν
 αἰεί, οἷον εἰ ἐμοίχευσεν, ἐπ' ἀκολασίαν, εἰ ἐγκατ- 30
 ἔλιπε τὸν παραστάτην, ἐπὶ δειλίαν, εἰ ἐπάταξεν,
 ἐπ' ὀργήν· εἰ δ' ἐκέρδανεν, ἐπ' οὐδεμίαν μοχ-
 6 θηρίαν ἀλλ' ἢ ἐπ' ἀδικίαν. ὥστε φανερόν ὅτι
 ἔστι τις ἀδικία παρὰ τὴν ὅλην ἄλλη ἐν μέρει,
 συνώνυμος, ὅτι ὁ ὀρισμὸς ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ γένει· 1130 b
 ἄμφω γὰρ ἐν τῷ πρὸς ἕτερον ἔχουσι τὴν δύναμιν,
 ἀλλ' ~~ἄρ'~~ μὲν περὶ τιμὴν ἢ χρήματα ἢ σωτηρίαν, ἢ
 εἴ τιμι ἐχοιμεν ἐνὶ ὀνόματι περιλαβεῖν ταῦτα
 πάντα, καὶ δι' ἡδονὴν τὴν ἀπὸ τοῦ κέρδους, ἢ δὲ
 περὶ ἅπαντα περὶ ὅσα ὁ σπουδαῖος.

7 Ὅτι μὲν οὖν εἰσὶ ³ δικαιοσύναι πλείους, καὶ ὅτι

¹ ἄρ' Bywater: γὰρ K^b, ἄρα γε L^b.

² ὅτι K^b.

³ εἰσὶν αἱ K^b.

when a man takes more than his share, it is frequently not due to any of these vices, and certainly not to all of them. yet nevertheless the action does display some vice, since we blame it ; in fact it displays the
3 vice of Injustice. Therefore there is another sort of Injustice, which is a part of Injustice in the universal sense, and there is something unjust which is a part of the unjust in general, or illegal. (2)
4 Again, suppose two men to commit adultery, one for profit, and gaining by the act, the other from desire, and having to pay, and so losing by it : then the latter would be deemed to be a profligate rather than a man who takes more than his due, while the former would be deemed unjust, but not profligate ; clearly therefore it is being done for profit that
5 makes the action unjust. (3) Again, whereas all other unjust acts are invariably ascribed to some particular vice—for example, adultery is put down to Profligacy, desertion from the ranks to Cowardice, assault to Anger—an unjust act by which a man has profited is not attributed to any vice except Injustice.
6 Hence it is manifest that there is another sort of Injustice besides universal Injustice, the former being a part of the latter. It is called by the same name because its definition falls in the same genus, both sorts of Injustice being exhibited in a man's relation to others ; but whereas Injustice in the particular sense is concerned with honour or money or security, or whatever term we may employ to include all these things, its motive being the pleasure of gain, Injustice in the universal sense is concerned with all the things that are the sphere of Virtue.

7 Thus it is clear that there are more kinds of

ἔστι τις καὶ ἑτέρα παρὰ τὴν ὅλην ἀρετὴν,¹ δῆλον·
 8 τίς δὲ καὶ ὁποία τις, ληπτέον. διώρισται δὴ τὸ
 ἄδικον τό τε παράνομον καὶ τὸ ἄνισον, τὸ δὲ
 δίκαιον τό τε νόμιμον καὶ τὸ ἴσον. κατὰ μὲν 10
 οὖν τὸ παράνομον ἢ πρότερον εἰρημένη ἀδικία
 9 ἐστίν. ἐπεὶ δὲ τὸ ἄνισον καὶ τὸ παράνομον² οὐ
 ταῦτόν ἀλλ' ἕτερον ὡς μέρος³ πρὸς ὅλον (τὸ μὲν
 γὰρ ἄνισον ἅπαν παράνομον, τὸ δὲ παράνομον
 οὐχ ἅπαν ἄνισον⁴), καὶ τὸ ἄδικον καὶ ἡ ἀδικία οὐ
 ταῦτά ἀλλ' ἕτερα ἐκείνων, τὰ μὲν ὡς μέρη τὰ δ'
 ὡς ὅλα· μέρος γὰρ αὕτη ἡ ἀδικία τῆς ὅλης ἀδικίας, 15
 ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡ δικαιοσύνη τῆς δικαιοσύνης.
 ὥστε καὶ περὶ τῆς ἐν μέρει δικαιοσύνης καὶ
 περὶ τῆς ἐν μέρει ἀδικίας λεκτέον, καὶ τοῦ δικαίου
 10 καὶ ἀδίκου⁵ ὡσαύτως. ἡ μὲν οὖν κατὰ τὴν ὅλην
 ἀρετὴν τεταγμένη δικαιοσύνη καὶ ἀδικία, ἡ μὲν
 τῆς ὅλης ἀρετῆς οὕσα χρήσις πρὸς ἄλλον, ἡ δὲ 20
 τῆς κακίας, ἀφείσθω. καὶ τὸ δίκαιον δὲ καὶ τὸ
 ἄδικον τὸ κατὰ ταύτας φανερόν ὡς διοριστέον·
 σχεδὸν γὰρ τὰ πολλὰ τῶν νομίμων τὰ ἀπὸ τῆς
 ὅλης ἀρετῆς πραττόμενά⁶ ἐστίν· καθ' ἐκάστην
 γὰρ ἀρετὴν προστάττει ζῆν καὶ καθ' ἐκάστην
 μοχθηρίαν κωλύει ὁ νόμος. τὰ δὲ ποιητικὰ τῆς 25

¹ ἀρετὴν secl. Gifanius.

² παράνομον Ald. Ar. : πλέον L^b, παράνομον πλέον K^bΓ.

³ ὡς μέρος καὶ K^b : καὶ ὡς μέρος? Bywater.

⁴ τὸ μὲν . . . ἄνισον Bywater: τὸ μὲν γὰρ πλέον ἅπαν ἄνισον τὸ δ' ἄνισον οὐ πᾶν πλέον K^bL^b, τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἄνισον ἅπαν παράνομον τὸ δὲ παράνομον οὐχ ἅπαν ἄνισον· καὶ τὸ μὲν γὰρ πλέον ἅπαν ἄνισον τὸ δ' ἄνισον οὐ πᾶν πλέον Γ (et eadem fere M^b).

⁵ ἀδίκου K^b : τοῦ ἀδίκου.

⁶ προσταττόμενα K^bΓ.

Justice than one, and that the term has another meaning besides Virtue as a whole. We have then to ascertain the nature and attributes of Justice in this special sense.

- 8 Now we have distinguished two meanings of 'the unjust,' namely the unlawful and the unequal or unfair, and two meanings of 'the just,' namely the lawful and the equal or fair. Injustice then, in the sense previously mentioned, corresponds to the meaning 'unlawful'; but since the unfair is not the same as the unlawful, but different from it, and related to it as part to whole (for not everything unlawful is unfair, though everything unfair is unlawful), so also the unjust and Injustice in the particular sense are not the same as the unjust and Injustice in the universal sense, but different from them, and related to them as part to whole; for Injustice in this sense is a part of universal Injustice, and similarly the Justice we are now considering is a part of universal Justice. We have therefore to discuss Justice and Injustice, and the just and unjust, in the particular sense.
- 10 We may then set aside that Justice which is co-extensive with virtue in general, being the practice of virtue in general towards someone else, and that Injustice which is the practice of vice in general towards someone else. It is also clear how we should define what is just and unjust in the corresponding senses. For the actions that spring from virtue in general are in the main identical with the actions that are according to law, since the law enjoins conduct displaying the various particular virtues and forbids conduct displaying the various particular vices. Also the regulations laid down for the educa-

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- ὅλης ἀρετῆς ἐστὶ τῶν νομίμων ὅσα νευομοθέτῃται
 11 περὶ παιδείαν τὴν πρὸς τὸ κοινόν. περὶ δὲ τῆς
 καθ' ἑκαστον παιδείας, καθ' ἣν ἀπλῶς ἀνὴρ
 ἀγαθός ἐστι, πότερον τῆς πολιτικῆς ἐστὶν ἢ
 ἐτέρας, ὕστερον διοριστέον· οὐ γὰρ ἴσως ταὐτὸν
 ἀνδρὶ τ' ἀγαθῷ εἶναι καὶ πολίτῃ παντί.
 12 Τῆς δὲ κατὰ μέρος δικαιοσύνης καὶ τοῦ κατ' 30
 αὐτὴν δικαίου ἐν μὲν ἐστὶν εἶδος τὸ ἐν ταῖς δια-
 νομαῖς τιμῆς ἢ χρημάτων ἢ τῶν ἄλλων ὅσα μεριστὰ
 τοῖς κοινωνοῦσι τῆς πολιτείας (ἐν τούτοις γὰρ
 ἔστι καὶ ἄνισον ἔχειν καὶ ἴσον ἕτερον ἐτέρου¹), ἐν
 13 δὲ τὸ ἐν τοῖς συναλλάγμασι διορθωτικόν. τούτου 1131
 δὲ μέρη δύο· τῶν γὰρ συναλλαγμάτων τὰ μὲν
 ἐκούσια ἐστὶ τὰ δ' ἀκούσια, ἐκούσια μὲν τὰ
 τοιαύδε οἶον πρᾶσις, ὠνή, δανεισμός, ἐγγύη, χρήσις,
 παρακαταθήκη, μίσθωσις (ἐκούσια δὲ λέγεται, 5
 ὅτι ἡ ἀρχὴ τῶν συναλλαγμάτων τούτων ἐκούσιος),
 τῶν δ' ἀκουσίων τὰ μὲν λαθραῖα, οἶον κλοπή,
 μοιχεία, φαρμακεία, προαγωγεία, δουλαπατία,
 δολοφονία, ψευδομαρτυρία, τὰ δὲ βίαια, οἶον
 αἰκία, δεσμός, θάνατος, ἄρπαγή, πῆρῳσις, κακ-
 ῃγορία, προπηλακισμός.
 iii Ἐπεὶ δ' ὁ τ' ἄδικος ἄνισος καὶ τὸ ἄδικον ἄνισον, 10
 δὴλον ὅτι καὶ μέσον τί ἐστὶ τοῦ ἀνίσου, τοῦτο

¹ ἐτέρον : ἐτέρῃ ? Ramsauer.

^a This topic is discussed in *Politics* III. Under certain forms of government the good man in the moral sense may not be a good citizen, that is, a citizen who will help to maintain the constitution.

^b 'Involuntary' here means lacking the consent of one of the parties.

^c In c. iv. below, the writer gives no illustration of the operation of Corrective Justice in Voluntary Transactions,

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tion that fits a man for social life are the rules productive of virtue in general. As for the education of the individual as such, that makes a man simply a good man, the question whether this is the business of Political Science or of some other science must be determined later : for it would seem that to be a good man is not in every case the same thing as to be a good citizen.^a

12 Particular Justice on the other hand, and that which is just in the sense corresponding to it, is divided into two kinds. One kind is exercised in the distribution of honour, wealth, and the other divisible assets of the community, which may be allotted among its members in equal or unequal shares. The other kind is that which supplies a

Particular
Justice :
(i) Distribu-
tive, (ii)
Corrective.

13 corrective principle in private transactions. This Corrective Justice again has two sub-divisions, corresponding to the two classes of private transactions, those which are voluntary and those which are involuntary.^b Examples of voluntary transactions are selling, buying, lending at interest, pledging, lending without interest, depositing, letting for hire ; these transactions being termed voluntary because they are voluntarily entered upon.^c Of involuntary transactions some are furtive, for instance, theft, adultery, poisoning, procuring, enticement of slaves, assassination, false witness ; others are violent, for instance, assault, imprisonment, murder, robbery with violence, maiming, abusive language, contumelious treatment.

iii Now since an unjust man is one who is unfair, and the unjust is the unequal, it is clear that corresponding to the unequal there is a mean, namely that which

Distribu-
tive Justice.

but he is clearly thinking of actions at law for damages resulting from breach of contract. See c. iv. 13 note.

2 δ' ἐστὶ τὸ ἴσον· ἐν ὁποία γὰρ πράξει ἐστὶ τὸ
 3 πλεόν καὶ τὸ ἔλαττον, ἐστὶ καὶ τὸ ἴσον. εἰ οὖν
 τὸ ἀδικον ἄνισον, τὸ δίκαιον ἴσον· ὅπερ καὶ ἄνευ
 λόγου δοκεῖ πᾶσιν. ἐπεὶ δὲ τὸ ἴσον μέσον, τὸ
 4 δίκαιον μέσον τι ἂν εἴη. ἔστι δὲ τὸ ἴσον ἐν 15
 ἐλαχίστοις δυσὶν. ἀνάγκη τοίνυν τὸ δίκαιον μέσον
 τε καὶ ἴσον εἶναι [καὶ πρὸς τι καὶ τισίν],¹ καὶ ἥ
 μὲν μέσον, τινῶν (ταῦτα δ' ἐστὶ πλεῖον καὶ ἔλατ-
 τον), ἥ δ' ἴσον ἐστίν, <ἐν>² δυσὶν, ἥ δὲ δίκαιον,
 5 τισίν. ἀνάγκη ἄρα τὸ δίκαιον ἐν ἐλαχίστοις
 εἶναι τέτταρσιν· οἷς τε γὰρ δίκαιον τυγχάνει ὃν 20
 6 δύο ἐστί, καὶ ἐν οἷς [τὰ πράγματα]³ δύο. καὶ
 ἡ αὐτὴ ἐστὶ ἰσότης οἷς καὶ ἐν οἷς· ὥς γὰρ ἐκεῖνα
 ἔχει [τὰ ἐν οἷς],⁴ οὕτω καὶ ἐκεῖνα ἔξει⁵. εἰ γὰρ μὴ
 ἴσοι, οὐκ ἴσα ἔξουσιν, ἀλλ' ἐντεῦθεν αἱ μάχαι
 καὶ τὰ ἐγκλήματα, ὅταν ἡ ἴσοι μὴ ἴσα ἢ μὴ ἴσοι
 7 ἴσα ἔχωσι καὶ νέμονται. ἔτι ἐκ τοῦ κατ' ἀξίαν
 τοῦτο δῆλον· τὸ γὰρ δίκαιον ἐν ταῖς διανομαῖς 25
 ὁμολογοῦσι πάντες κατ' ἀξίαν τινὰ δεῖν εἶναι,
 τὴν μέντοι ἀξίαν οὐ τὴν αὐτὴν λέγουσι πάντες
 [ὑπάρχειν],⁶ ἀλλ' οἱ μὲν δημοκρατικοὶ ἐλευθερίαν,
 οἱ δ' ὀλιγαρχικοὶ πλοῦτον, οἱ δ' εὐγένειαν, οἱ
 8 δ' ἀριστοκρατικοὶ ἀρετήν. ἔστιν ἄρα τὸ δίκαιον
 ἀνάλογόν τι. τὸ γὰρ ἀνάλογον οὐ μόνον ἐστὶ 30
 μονάδικου ἀριθμοῦ ἴδιον, ἀλλ' ὅλως ἀριθμοῦ· ἡ
 γὰρ ἀναλογία ἰσότης ἐστὶ λόγων, καὶ ἐν τέτταρσιν
 ἐλαχίστοις.

¹ Ramsauer : καὶ πρὸς τι om. K^b, καὶ τισίν om. L^b.

² Richards. ³ Scaliger.

⁴ [τὰ ἐν οἷς] om. K^b : τὰ οἷς Richards.

⁵ ἔξει Richards : ἔχει.

⁶ [ὑπάρχειν] om. O^b : κατ' ἀξίαν τινὰ δεῖν εἶναι K^b.

^a These words appear to be an interpolation.

- 2 is equal ; for every action admitting of more and less
 3 admits of the equal also. If then the unjust is the
 unequal, the just is the equal—a view that commends
 itself to all without proof ; and since the equal is a
 4 mean, the just will be a sort of mean too. Again,
 equality involves two terms at least. It accordingly
 follows not only (a) that the just is a mean and equal
 [and relative to something and just for certain
 persons^a], but also (b) that, as a mean, it implies
 certain extremes between which it lies, namely the
 more and the less ; (c) that, as equal, it implies two
 shares that are equal ; and (d) that, as just, it implies
 5 certain persons for whom it is just. It follows
 therefore that justice involves at least four terms,
 namely, two persons for whom it is just and two
 6 shares which are just. And there will be the same
 equality between the shares as between the persons,
 since the ratio between the shares will be equal to
 the ratio between the persons ; for if the persons
 are not equal, they will not have equal shares ; it is
 when equals possess or are allotted unequal shares,
 or persons not equal equal shares, that quarrels and
 complaints arise.
- 7 This is also clear from the principle of assignment
 by desert. All are agreed that justice in distributions
 must be based on desert of some sort, although they
 do not all mean the same sort of desert : democrats
 make the criterion free birth ; those of oligarchical
 sympathies wealth, or in other cases birth ; up-
 8 holders of aristocracy make it virtue. Justice is
 therefore a sort of proportion ; for proportion is not
 a property of numerical quantity only, but of quantity
 in general, proportion being equality of ratios, and
 involving four terms at least.

- 9 (Ἡ μὲν οὖν διηρημένη ὅτι ἐν τέτταρσι, δῆλον, ἀλλὰ καὶ ἡ συνεχής· τῷ γὰρ ἐνὶ ὧς δυσὶ χρήται 1131 καὶ δις λέγει, οἷον ὡς ἡ τοῦ A¹ πρὸς τὴν τοῦ B¹ οὕτως καὶ ἡ τοῦ B¹ πρὸς τὴν τοῦ Γ¹. δις οὖν ἡ τοῦ B¹ εἴρηται· ὥστ' ἐὰν ἡ τοῦ B¹ τεθῇ δις,² τέτταρα ἔσται τὰ ἀνάλογα.)
- 10 Ἔστι δὴ³ καὶ τὸ δίκαιον ἐν τέτταρσιν ἐλαχίστοις, καὶ ὁ λόγος ὁ αὐτός. διήρηνται⁴ γὰρ ὁμοίως οἷς 5
- 11 τε καὶ α'. ἔσται ἄρα ὡς ὁ πρῶτος ὅρος πρὸς τὸν δεύτερον, οὕτως ὁ τρίτος πρὸς τὸν τέταρτον, καὶ ἐναλλάξ ἄρα, ὡς ὁ πρῶτος πρὸς τὸν τρίτον, ὁ δεύτερος πρὸς τὸν τέταρτον. ὥστε καὶ τὸ ὅλον πρὸς τὸ ὅλον· ὅπερ⁵ ἡ νομὴ συνδυάζει,
- 12 καὶ οὕτως συντεθῇ, δικαίως συνδυάζει. ἡ ἄρα τοῦ πρώτου ὅρου τῷ τρίτῳ καὶ ἡ τοῦ δευτέρου τῷ τετάρτῳ σύζευξις τὸ ἐν διανομῇ δίκαιόν ἐστι, 10 καὶ μέσον τὸ δίκαιον τοῦτ' ἐστὶ τοῦ παρὰ⁶ τὸ ἀνάλογον· τὸ γὰρ ἀνάλογον μέσον, τὸ δὲ δίκαιον ἀνάλογον.

¹ A B Γ (et fort. τοῦ identidem secludendum) Burnet: α β γ vulg., πρώτου, δευτέρου, τρίτου K^b.

² ἐὰν τὸ δεύτερον δις τεθῇ K^b.

³ δὴ ed.: δέ.

⁴ διήρηνται K^b: διηρήσθω vel διηρήσθωσαν? ed.

⁵ ἅπερ? Bywater.

⁶ τοῦ παρὰ: τὸ παρὰ K^b, <τὸ δ' ἄδικον> τὸ παρὰ Γ, Bywater.

^a A 'discrete proportion' means one in which the two ratios are disconnected, being between different terms, whereas in a 'continuous proportion' they have one term in common.

^b Here the lecturer displayed a diagram.

^c Here was another diagram (one would expect the sentence to run 'Let two lines representing . . . have been similarly divided'). Two segments, A and B, of one line 270

- 9 (That a discrete proportion ^a has four terms is plain, but so also has a continuous proportion, since it treats one term as two, and repeats it: for example,^b as the line A is to the line B, so is the line B to the line C; here the line B is mentioned twice, so that if it be counted twice, there will be four proportionals.)
- 10 Thus the just also involves four terms at least, and the ratio between the first pair of terms is the same as that between the second pair. For the two lines representing the persons and shares are similarly
- 11 divided ^c; then, as the first term is to the second, so is the third to the fourth; and hence, by alternation, as the first is to the third, so is the second to the fourth; and therefore also, as the first is to the second, so is the sum of the first and third to the sum of the second and fourth. Now this is the combination effected by a distribution of shares, and the combination is a just one, if persons and shares are
- 12 added together in this way. The principle of Distributive Justice, therefore, is the conjunction of the first term of a proportion with the third and of the second with the fourth; and the just in this sense is a mean between two extremes that are disproportionate,^d since the proportionate is a mean, and the just is the proportionate.

represented two persons, two segments, C and D, of another their shares. It is shown that, if $A : B :: C : D$, then $A + C : B + D :: A : B$, *i.e.*, if the shares are proportioned to the persons, their relative condition after receiving them will be the same as it was before.

^a *i.e.*, A's just share lies between too large a share and too small a one, too large and too small here meaning more or less than is proportionate to A's claim. Cf. II. vi. 4 note ^e and 7.

- 13 (Καλοῦσι δὲ τὴν τοιαύτην ἀναλογίαν γεωμετρικὴν οἱ μαθηματικοί· ἐν γὰρ τῇ γεωμετρικῇ συμβαίνει καὶ τὸ ὅλον πρὸς τὸ ὅλον ὅπερ ἐκάτερον 15
14 πρὸς ἐκάτερον.—ἔστι δ' οὐ συνεχὴς αὕτη ἡ ἀναλογία· οὐ γὰρ γίνεται εἰς ἀριθμῷ ὄρος, ᾧ καὶ ὅ.)

- Τὸ μὲν οὖν δίκαιον τοῦτο τὸ ἀνάλογον, τὸ δ' ἄδικον τὸ παρὰ τὸ ἀνάλογον. γίνεται ἄρα τὸ μὲν πλεόν τὸ δὲ ἔλαττον· ὅπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἔργων συμβαίνει· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἀδικῶν πλεόν ἔχει, ὁ δ' 15 ἀδικούμενος ἔλαττον τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ· ἐπὶ δὲ τοῦ κακοῦ 20 ἀνάπαλιν· ἐν ἀγαθοῦ γὰρ λόγῳ γίνεται τὸ ἔλαττον 16 κακὸν πρὸς τὸ μείζον κακόν· ἔστι γὰρ τὸ ἔλαττον κακὸν μᾶλλον αἰρετὸν τοῦ μείζονος, τὸ δ' αἰρετὸν ἀγαθόν, καὶ τὸ μᾶλλον μείζον.
- 17 Τὸ μὲν οὖν ἐν εἶδος τοῦ δικαίου τοῦτ' ἐστίν.

- iv Τὸ δὲ λοιπὸν ἐν τὸ διορθωτικόν, ὃ γίνεται ἐν 25 τοῖς συναλλάγμασι καὶ τοῖς ἐκουσίοις καὶ τοῖς 2 ἀκουσίοις. τοῦτο δὲ τὸ δίκαιον ἄλλο εἶδος ἔχει τοῦ προτέρου. τὸ μὲν γὰρ διανεμητικὸν δίκαιον τῶν κοινῶν αἰεὶ κατὰ τὴν ἀναλογίαν ἐστὶ τὴν εἰρημωτικήν (καὶ γὰρ ἀπὸ χρημάτων κοινῶν ἐὰν γίγνηται ἡ διανομή, ἔσται κατὰ τὸν λόγον τὸν 30 αὐτὸν ὅνπερ ἔχουσι πρὸς ἄλληλα τὰ εἰσενεχθέντα), καὶ τὸ ἄδικον τὸ ἀντικείμενον τῷ δικαίῳ τούτῳ 3 παρὰ τὸ ἀνάλογόν ἐστιν· τὸ δ' ἐν τοῖς συναλλάγμασι δίκαιον ἐστὶ μὲν ἴσον τι, καὶ τὸ ἄ-

* We call this a proportion simply : cf. c. iv. 3 and note.
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13 (This kind of proportion is termed by mathematicians geometrical proportion^a; for a geometrical proportion is one in which the sum of the first and third terms will bear the same ratio to the sum of the second and fourth as one term of either pair
14 bears to the other term.—Distributive justice is not a continuous proportion, for its second and third terms, a person and a share, do not constitute a single term.)

The just in this sense is therefore the proportionate, and the unjust is that which violates proportion. The unjust may therefore be either too much or too little; and this is what we find in fact, for when injustice is done, the doer has too much and the
15 sufferer too little of the good in question; though *vice versa* in the case of an evil, because a lesser evil
16 in comparison with a greater counts as a good, since the lesser of two evils is more desirable than the greater, but what is desirable is good, and the more desirable it is, the greater good it is.

17 This then is one kind of Justice.

iv The remaining kind is Corrective Justice, which^{* Corrective Justice} operates in private transactions, both voluntary
2 and involuntary. This justice is of a different sort from the preceding. For justice in distributing common property always conforms with the proportion we have described (since when a distribution is made from the common stock, it will follow the same ratio as that between the amounts which the several persons have contributed to the common stock); and the injustice opposed to justice of this
3 kind is a violation of this proportion. But the just in private transactions, although it is the equal in a

δικον ἄνισον, ἀλλ' οὐ κατὰ τὴν ἀναλογίαν ἐκείνην 1132:
 ἀλλὰ κατὰ τὴν ἀριθμητικὴν. οὐθὲν γὰρ διαφέρει,
 εἰ ἐπιεικὴς φαῦλον ἀπεστέρησεν ἢ φαῦλος ἐπιεικῇ,
 οὐδ' εἰ ἐμοίχευσεν ἐπιεικὴς ἢ φαῦλος· ἀλλὰ πρὸς
 τοῦ βλάβους τὴν διαφορὰν μόνον βλέπει ὁ νόμος,⁵
 καὶ χρήται ὡς ἴσοις, εἰ ὁ μὲν ἀδικεῖ ὁ δ' ἀ-
 4 δικεῖται, καὶ εἰ ἔβλαψεν ὁ δὲ βέβλαπται. ὥστε
 τὸ ἀδικον τοῦτο ἄνισον ὃν ἰσάζειν πειράται ὁ
 δικαστής· καὶ γὰρ ὅταν ὁ μὲν πληγῇ ὁ δὲ πατάξῃ,
 ἢ καὶ κτείνῃ ὁ δ' ἀποθάνῃ, διήρηται τὸ πάθος
 καὶ ἡ πράξις εἰς ἄνισα· ἀλλὰ πειράται τῇ ζημίᾳ¹⁰
 5 ἰσάζειν, ἀφαιρῶν τὸ κέρδος.¹ (λέγεται γὰρ ὡς
 ἀπλῶς εἰπεῖν ἐπὶ τοῖς τοιούτοις, κὰν εἰ μὴ τισιν
 οἰκεῖον ὄνομα εἴη, τὸ κέρδος, οἷον τῷ πατάξαντι,
 6 καὶ ἡ ζημία τῷ παθόντι· ἀλλ' ὅταν γε μετρηθῇ
 τὸ πάθος, καλεῖται τὸ μὲν ζημία τὸ δὲ κέρδος.)
 ὥστε τοῦ μὲν πλείονος καὶ ἐλάττονος τὸ ἴσον
 μέσον, τὸ δὲ κέρδος καὶ ἡ ζημία τὸ μὲν πλέον¹⁵
 τὸ δ' ἐλάττον ἐναντίως, τὸ μὲν τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ πλέον
 τοῦ κακοῦ δ' ἐλάττον κέρδος, τὸ δ' ἐναντίον
 *ζημία· ὣν ἤν μέσον τὸ ἴσον, ὃ λέγομεν εἶναι
 δίκαιον· ὥστε τὸ ἐπανορθωτικὸν δίκαιον ἂν εἴη
 τὸ μέσον ζημίας καὶ κέρδους.

¹ τὸ κέρδος Richards: τοῦ κέρδους.

^a That is, two pairs of terms (*e.g.* 1, 3; 7, 9), of which the second term exceeds the first by the same amount as the fourth exceeds the third. We do not call this a proportion at all, but, if also the third term exceeds the second by the same amount (*e.g.* 1, 3, 5, 7), an arithmetical progression.

^b For Corrective Justice the merits of the parties are immaterial.

^c Again a diagram is employed, *cf.* c. iii. 9, 10, and *infra*, § 8.

^d ζημία has both senses.

sense (and the unjust the unequal), is not the equal according to geometrical but according to arithmetical proportion.^a For it makes no difference ^b whether a good man has defrauded a bad man or a bad one a good one, nor whether it is a good or a bad man that has committed adultery; the law looks only at the degree of damage done, treating the parties as equal, and merely asking whether one has done and the other suffered injustice, whether one inflicted and the other has sustained damage.

- ⁴ Hence the unjust being here the unequal, the judge endeavours to equalize it: inasmuch as when one man has received and the other has inflicted a blow, or one has killed and the other been killed, the line ^c representing the suffering and doing of the deed is divided into unequal parts, but the judge endeavours to make them equal by the penalty or loss ^d he imposes, ⁵ taking away the gain. (For the term 'gain' is used in a general way to apply to such cases, even though it is not strictly appropriate to some of them, for example to a person who strikes another, nor is 'loss' ⁶ appropriate to the victim in this case; but at all events the results are called 'loss' and 'gain' respectively when the amount of the damage sustained comes to be estimated.) Thus, while the equal is a mean between more and less, gain and loss are at once both more and less in contrary ways, more good and less evil being gain and more evil and less good loss; and as the equal, which we pronounce to be just, is, as we said, a mean between them, it follows that Justice in Rectification ^e will be the mean between loss and gain.

^a A slightly different term is here introduced, but apparently without difference of meaning.

- 7 Διὸ καὶ ὅταν ἀμφισβητῶσιν, ἐπὶ τὸν δικαστὴν ²⁰
καταφεύγουσιν· τὸ δ' ἐπὶ τὸν δικαστὴν ἵνα ἵνα
ἔστιν ἐπὶ τὸ δίκαιον· ὁ γὰρ δικαστὴς βούλεται
εἶναι οἷον δίκαιον ἔμψυχον. καὶ ζητοῦσι δικαστὴν
μέσον, καὶ καλοῦσιν ἔνιοι μεσιδίους, ὡς εἰν τοῦ
μέσου τύχωσι, τοῦ δικαίου τευξόμενοι. μέσον
8 ἄρα τι τὸ δίκαιον, εἴπερ καὶ ὁ δικαστὴς. ὁ δὲ ²⁵
δικαστὴς ἐπανισοῖ, καὶ ὥσπερ γραμμῆς εἰς ἄνισα
τετμημένης, ᾧ τὸ μείζον τμήμα τῆς ἡμισείας
ὑπερέχει, τοῦτ' ἀφείλε καὶ τῷ ἐλάττονι τμήματι
προσέθηκεν. ὅταν δὲ δίχα διαιρεθῇ τὸ ὅλον,
τότε φασὶν ἔχειν τὰ αὐτῶν,¹ ὅταν λάβωσι τὸ
9 ἴσον. [τὸ δ' ἴσον² μέσον ἐστὶ τοῦ³ μείζονος καὶ
ἐλάττονος κατὰ τὴν ἀριθμητικὴν ἀναλογίαν.] διὰ ³⁰
τοῦτο καὶ ὀνομάζεται δίκαιον, ὅτι δίχα ἐστίν,
ὥσπερ ἂν εἴ τις εἴποι δίχαιον, καὶ ὁ δικαστὴς
10 διχαστὴς.* ἐπὶ γὰρ δύο ἴσων ἀφαιρεθῇ ἀπὸ
θατέρου, πρὸς θάτερον δὲ προστεθῇ, δυσὶ τούτοις
ὑπερέχει θάτερον· εἰ γὰρ ἀφηρέθη μὲν, μὴ προσ-
ετέθη δέ, ἐνὶ ἅν μόνον ὑπερείχεν. τοῦ μέσου ^{1132 b}
ἄρα ἐνί, καὶ τὸ μέσον <τοῦ>⁴ ἀφ' οὗ ἀφηρέθη
11 ἐνί. τούτῳ ἄρα γνωριούμεν τί τε ἀφελεῖν δεῖ
ἀπὸ τοῦ πλεόν ἔχοντος, καὶ τί προσθεῖναι τῷ ⁵
ἐλάττον ἔχοντι· ᾧ μὲν γὰρ τὸ μέσον ὑπερέχει,

¹ ~~τῶν αὐτῶν~~ Coraes: τὸ αὐτοῦ.

² τὸ δ' ἴσον. . . ἀναλογίαν infra post διχαστὴς tr. Rassow.

³ τοῦ? Richards: τῆς.

⁴ Zell.

^a In the mss. this sentence follows the next one.

^b If $a=b$, then $(b+n)-(a-n)=2n$, and $(b+n)-a=n$,
and $(b+n)-\frac{(b+n)+(a-n)}{2}=n=\frac{(b+n)+(a-n)}{2}-(a-n)$.

Aristotle, of course, represented the quantities by lines,
not algebraically.

- 7 This is why in cases of dispute men have recourse to a judge. To go to a judge is to go to justice, for the ideal judge is so to speak justice personified. Also, men require a judge to be a middle term or *medium*—indeed in some places judges are called *mediators*—, for they think that if they get the mean they will get what is just. Thus the just is a sort of mean, inasmuch as the judge is a medium between the litigants.
- 8 Now the judge restores equality : if we represent the matter by a line divided into two unequal parts, he takes away from the greater segment that portion by which it exceeds one-half of the whole line, and adds it to the lesser segment. When the whole has been divided into two halves, people then say that they 'have their own,' having got what is equal.
- 9 ^a This is indeed the origin of the word *dikaion* (just) : it means *dicha* (in half), as if one were to pronounce it *dichaion* ; and a *dikast* (judge) is a *dichast* (halver). The equal is a mean by way of arithmetical proportion
- 10 between the greater and the less. For when of two equals ^b a part is taken from the one and added to the other, the latter will exceed the former by twice that part, since if it had been taken from the one but not added to the other, the latter would exceed the former by once the part in question only. Therefore the latter will exceed the mean by once the part, and the mean will exceed the former, from which the part was taken, by once that part.
- 11 This process then will enable us to ascertain what we ought to take away from the party that has too much and what to add to the one that has too little : we must add to the one that has too little the amount whereby the mean between them exceeds him,

ARISTOTLE

- τοῦτο προσθεῖναι δεῖ τῷ ἔλαττον ἔχοντι, ᾧ δ' 12
 ὑπερέχεται, ἀφελεῖν ἀπὸ τοῦ μεγίστου. ἴσαι αἱ
 ἐφ' ὧν AA BB ΓΓ ἀλλήλαις· ἀπὸ τῆς AA
 ἀφηρήσθω τὸ AE, καὶ προσκείσθω τῇ ΓΓ τὸ ἐφ'
 ᾧ ΓΔ, ὥστε ὅλη ἡ ΔΓΓ τῆς EA ὑπερέχει τῷ
 ΓΔ καὶ τῷ ΓΖ· τῆς ἄρα BB τῷ ΓΔ. [ἐστὶ¹
 δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων τεχνῶν τοῦτο· ἀνηρῶντο 10
 γὰρ ἄν, εἰ μὴ ἐποίει τὸ ποιοῦν, καὶ ὅσον· καὶ οἶον
 καὶ τὸ πάσχον, ἔπασχε τοῦτο καὶ τοσοῦτον καὶ
 τοιοῦτον.]
- 13 Ἐλήλυθε δὲ τὰ ὀνόματα ταῦτα, ἣ τε ζημία καὶ
 τὸ κέρδος, ἐκ τῆς ἐκουσίου ἀλλαγῆς· τὸ μὲν γὰρ
 πλεόν ἔχειν ἢ τὰ ἑαυτοῦ κερδαίνειν λέγεται, τὸ
 δ' ἔλαττον τῶν ἐξ ἀρχῆς ζημιοῦσθαι, οἶον ἐν τῷ 15
 ὠνεῖσθαι καὶ πωλεῖν καὶ ἐν ὅσοις ἄλλοις ἄδειαν
- 14 δέδωκεν ὁ νόμος· ὅταν δὲ μήτε πλεόν μήτ'
 ἔλαττον ἀλλ' αὐτὰ δι' αὐτῶν γένηται, τὰ αὐτῶν
 φασὶν ἔχειν καὶ οὔτε ζημιοῦσθαι οὔτε κερδαίνειν.
 ὥστε κέρδους τινὸς καὶ ζημίας μέσον τὸ δίκαιόν
 ἐστὶ τῶν παρὰ τὸ ἐκούσιον, τὸ ἴσον ἔχειν καὶ
 πρότερον καὶ ὕστερον. 20
- ν Δοκεῖ δέ τισι καὶ τὸ ἀντιπεπονθὸς εἶναι ἀπλῶς
 δίκαιον, ὥσπερ οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι ἔφασαν· ὠρίζοντο
 γὰρ ἀπλῶς τὸ δίκαιον τὸ ἀντιπεπονθὸς ἄλλῳ.
- 2 Τὸ δ' ἀντιπεπονθὸς οὐκ ἐφαρμόττει οὐτ' ἐπὶ τὸ

¹ [ἐστὶ . . . τοιοῦτον] Muretus (= 1133 a 14-16).

^a i.e., the party that has too much.

b	A	E	A'
	B		B'
	D	C	F
			C'

The writer intends both CD and CF to be equal to AE.

and take away from the greatest^a of the three the
 12 amount by which the mean is exceeded by him. Let
 the lines^b AA', BB', CC' be equal to one another ;
 let the segment AE be taken away from the line
 AA', and let the segment CD be added to the
 line CC', so that the whole line DCC' exceeds the
 line EA' by CD + CF ; then DCC' will exceed BB'
 by CD.^c

13 The terms 'loss' and 'gain' in these cases are
 borrowed from the operations of voluntary exchange.
 There, to have more than one's own is called gaining,
 and to have less than one had at the outset is called
 losing, as for instance in buying and selling, and
 14 all other transactions sanctioned by law ;^d while if
 the result of the transaction is neither an increase
 nor a decrease, but exactly what the parties had of
 themselves, they say they 'have their own' and
 have neither lost nor gained. Hence Justice in
 Involuntary Transactions is a mean between gain
 and loss in a sense : it is to have after the transaction
 an amount equal to the amount one had before it.

¶ The view is also held by some that simple Re-
 ciprocity is Justice. This was the doctrine of the
 Pythagoreans, who defined the just simply as 'suffer
 ing reciprocally with another.'^e

Corrective
 Justice
 ctd. : Reci-
 procity

2 Reciprocity however does not coincide either with

^a The mss. here insert the sentence that appears again
 at c. v. 9 init.

^b Literally 'where the law gives immunity,' that is, does
 not give redress for inequality resulting from the contract.
 Should inequality result from a breach of the contract, this
 would of course be a case for the intervention of Corrective
 Justice in Voluntary Transactions (c. ii. fin.).

^c That is, retaliation : A shall have done to him what
 he has done to B.

ARISTOTLE

διανεμητικὸν δίκαιον οὐτ' ἐπὶ τὸ διορθωτικόν ²⁵
 3 (καίτοι βούλονται γε τοῦτο λέγειν καὶ τὸ Ῥαδα-
 μάνθυος δίκαιον·

εἴ κε πάθοι τὰ τ'¹ ἔρεξε, δίκη κ' ἰθεῖα γένοιτο)·

4 πολλαχοῦ γὰρ διαφωνεῖ· οἶον εἰ ἀρχὴν ἔχων
 ἐπάταξεν, οὐ δεῖ ἀντιπληγῆναι, καὶ εἰ ἄρχοντα
 ἐπάταξεν, οὐ πληγῆναι μόνον δεῖ ἀλλὰ καὶ κολα- ³⁰
 5 σθῆναι. ἔτι τὸ ἐκούσιον καὶ τὸ ἀκούσιον διαφέρει
 6 πολὺ. ἀλλ' ἐν μὲν ταῖς κοινωνίαις ταῖς ἀλλακτι-
 καῖς συνέχει τὸ τοιοῦτον δίκαιον, τὸ ἀντιπεπονθός,
 κατ' ἀναλογίαν² καὶ μὴ κατ' ἰσότητα. τῷ ἀντι-
 ποιεῖν γὰρ ἀνάλογον συμμένει ἢ πόλις· ἢ γὰρ τὸ
 κακῶς ζητοῦσιν, εἰ δὲ μὴ, δουλεία δοκεῖ εἶναι [εἰ ^{1133 a}
 μὴ ἀντιποιήσῃ]³. ἢ τὸ εὖ, εἰ δὲ μὴ, μετὰδοσις
 7 οὐ γίνεται, τῇ μεταδόσει δὲ συμμένουσιν. διὸ καὶ
 Χαρίτων ἱερὸν ἐμποδῶν⁴ ποιοῦνται, ἵν' ἀνταπόδοσις
 ᾗ· τοῦτο γὰρ ἴδιον χάριτος· ἀνθυπηρετῆσαί τε
 γὰρ δεῖ τῷ χαρισαμένῳ καὶ πάλιν αὐτὸν ἄρξαι ⁵
 χαριζόμενον.

8 Ποιεῖ δὲ τὴν ἀντίδοσιν τὴν κατ' ἀναλογίαν ἢ
 κατὰ διάμετρον σύζευξις, οἶον οἰκοδόμος ἐφ' ᾧ Α,
 σκυτοτόμος ἐφ' ᾧ Β, οἰκία ἐφ' ᾧ Γ, ὑπόδημα ἐφ'
 ᾧ Δ. δεῖ οὖν λαμβάνειν τὸν οἰκοδόμον παρὰ τοῦ
 σκυτοτόμου τοῦ ἐκείνου ἔργου, καὶ αὐτὸν ἐκείνῳ

¹ τ' Coraes : κ'.

² ἀναλογίαν <δὲ> Richards.

³ Muretus.

⁴ ἐν πόλεσιν ? Jackson.

^a Literally 'whether the act was voluntary or involuntary';
 see note ^b on c. ii. 13.

- 3 Distributive or with Corrective Justice (although people mean to identify it with the latter when they quote the rule of Rhadamanthys—

An a man suffer even that which he did,
Right justice will be done).

- 4 For in many cases Reciprocity is at variance with Justice : for example, if an officer strikes a man, it is wrong for the man to strike him back ; and if a man strikes an officer, it is not enough for the officer to strike him, but he ought to be punished
5 as well. Again, it makes a great difference whether an act was done with or without the consent of the
6 other party.^a But in the interchange of services Justice in the form of Reciprocity is the bond that maintains the association : reciprocity, that is, on the basis of proportion, not on the basis of equality. The very existence of the state depends on proportionate reciprocity ; for men demand that they shall be able to requite evil with evil—if they cannot, they feel they are in the position of slaves,—and to repay good with good—failing which, no exchange takes place, and it is exchange that binds them together.
7 This is why we set up a shrine of the Graces in a public place, to remind men to return a kindness ; for that is a special characteristic of grace, since it is a duty not only to repay a service done ~~one~~, but afterwards to take the initiative in doing a service oneself in return.
8 Now proportionate requital is effected by diagonal conjunction. For example. let A be a builder, B a shoemaker, C a house, and D a shoe. It is required that the builder shall receive from the shoemaker a portion of the product of his labour, and give him

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μεταδιδόναι τοῦ αὐτοῦ. εἰς οὖν πρῶτον ἢ τὸ 10
κατὰ τὴν ἀναλογίαν ἴσον, εἴτα τὸ ἀντιπεπονθὸς
γένηται, ἔσται τὸ λεγόμενον· εἰ δὲ μή, οὐκ ἴσον,
οὐδὲ συμμένει. οὐθὲν γὰρ κωλύει κρείττον εἶναι
τὸ θατέρον ἔργον ἢ τὸ θατέρον, δεῖ οὖν ταῦτα
9 ἴσασθῆναι. ἔστι¹ δὲ τοῦτο καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων
τεχνῶν· ἀνηροῦντο γὰρ ἄν, εἰ μὴ ἐποίει² τὸ ποιοῦν, 15
καὶ ὅσον καὶ οἶον καὶ τὸ πάσχον, ἔπασχε τοῦτο
καὶ τοσοῦτον καὶ τοιοῦτον. οὐ γὰρ ἐκ δύο ἰατρῶν
γίνεται κοινωνία, ἀλλ' ἐξ ἱατροῦ καὶ γεωργοῦ, καὶ
ὅλως ἐτέρων καὶ οὐκ ἴσων· ἀλλὰ τούτους δεῖ
10 ἴσασθῆναι. διὸ πάντα συμβλητὰ δεῖ πως εἶναι,
ὧν ἐστὶν ἀλλαγὴ. ἐφ' ὃ τὸ νόμισμ' ἐλήλυθε, καὶ 20
γίνεται πως μέσον· πάντα γὰρ μετρεῖ, ὥστε καὶ
τὴν ὑπεροχὴν καὶ τὴν ἔλλειψιν, πόσα ἅττα δὴ
ὑποδήματ' ἴσον οἰκία ἢ τροφῇ. δεῖ τοίνυν ὅπερ
οἰκοδόμος πρὸς σκυτοτόμον, τοσαδὶ ὑποδήματα

¹ ἔστι . . . τοιοῦτον secl. Ramsauer.

² εἰ μὴ <δ> ἐποίει Berg. : εἰ μὴ ἐποίει <τὸ πάσχον ὅσον καὶ οἶον ποιεῖ> τὸ ποιοῦν Jackson.

^a The relative value of the units of the two products must be ascertained, say one house must be taken as worth n

shoes. Then the four terms are $\begin{matrix} A & B \\ & \vdots \\ C & nD \end{matrix}$ and cross-

conjunction gives totals $A + nD$, $B + C$, which are in 'arithmetical proportion' (see note ^a on c. iv. 3) with the two first terms, i.e. the difference between each pair is the same; the builder and the shoemaker after the transaction are richer by an equal amount than they were before they began to make the articles.

^b This sentence also appeared in the mss. above, at c. iv. 12, where it made no sense. If genuine here, the phrases 'active element' and 'passive element' seem to mean producer and consumer. Even so, it is probable that there

a portion of the product of his own. Now^a if proportionate equality between the products be first established, and then reciprocation take place, the requirement indicated will have been achieved ; but if this is not done, the bargain is not equal, and intercourse does not continue. For it may happen that the product of one of the parties is worth more than that of the other, and in that case therefore they have
9 to be equalized. This holds good with the other arts as well ; for they would have passed out of existence if the active element did not produce, and did not receive the equivalent in quantity and quality of what the passive element receives.^b For an association for interchange of services is not formed between two physicians, but between a physician and a farmer, and generally between persons who are different, and who may be unequal, though in
10 that case they have to be equalized. Hence all commodities exchanged must be able to be compared in some way. It is to meet this requirement that men have introduced money ; money constitutes in a manner a middle term, for it is a measure of all things, and so of their superior or inferior value, that is to say, how many shoes are equivalent to a house or to a given quantity of food. As therefore a builder is to a shoemaker,^c so must such and such a number of
is some corruption ; Jackson's insertion gives ' unless the passive element produced the same in quantity and quality as the active, and the latter received the same in quantity and quality as the former.'

^a It is uncertain whether this merely refers to the difference in value (or perhaps in labour used in production) between the unit products of different trades, or whether it introduces the further conception that different kinds of producers have different social values and deserve different rates of reward.

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- πρὸς οἰκίαν ἢ τροφήν. εἰ γὰρ μὴ τοῦτο, οὐκ ἔσται ἀλλαγὴ οὐδὲ κοινωνία· τοῦτο δ', εἰ μὴ ἴσα ²⁵
- 11 εἴη πως, οὐκ ἔσται.—δεῖ ἄρα ἐνὶ τινι πάντα με-
 τρεῖσθαι, ὥσπερ ἐλέχθη πρότερον. τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶ
 τῇ μὲν ἀληθείᾳ ἢ χρεία, ἢ πάντα συνέχει· εἰ γὰρ
 μὴθὲν δέοιντο ἢ μὴ ὁμοίως, ἢ οὐκ ἔσται ἀλλαγὴ
 ἢ οὐχ ἡ αὐτή. οἷον δ' ὑπάλλαγμα τῆς χρείας
 τὸ νόμισμα γέγονε κατὰ συνθήκην· καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ³⁰
 τοῦνομα ἔχει νόμισμα, ὅτι οὐ φύσει ἀλλὰ νόμῳ ἐστί,
 καὶ ἐφ' ἡμῖν μεταβαλεῖν καὶ ποιῆσαι ἄχρηστον.
- 12 ἔσται δὲ ἀντιπεπονθός, ὅταν ἰσασθῇ, ὥστε ὅπερ
 γεωργὸς πρὸς σκυτοτόμον, τὸ ἔργον τὸ τοῦ σκυτο-
 τόμου πρὸς τὸ τοῦ γεωργοῦ. εἰς σχῆμα δ' ἀνα- ^{1133b}
 λογίας [οὐ]¹ δεῖ ἄγειν, ὅταν ἀλλάζωνται· εἰ δὲ μὴ,
 ἀμφοτέρας ἔξει τὰς ὑπεροχὰς τὸ ἕτερον ἄκρον·
 ἀλλ' ὅταν ἔχωσι τὰ αὐτῶν, οὕτως ἴσοι, καὶ κοινω-
 νοί, ὅτι αὕτη ἡ ἰσότης δύναται ἐπ' αὐτῶν γίνεσθαι
 (γεωργὸς A, τροφή Γ, σκυτοτόμος B, τὸ ἔργον ⁵
 αὐτοῦ τὸ ἰσασμένον Δ)· εἰ δ' οὕτω μὴ ἦν ἀντι-
 13 πεπονθέναι, οὐκ ἂν ἦν κοινωνία. ὅτι δ' ἡ χρεία
 συνέχει ὥσπερ ἐν τι ὄν, δηλοῖ ὅτι ὅταν μὴ ἐν χρεία
 ὦσιν ἀλλήλων ἢ ἀμφότεροι ἢ ἄτερος, οὐκ ἀλλάτ-

¹ [οὐ] Bekker²: om. Γ.

^a ~~ἀχρηστον~~ also connotes 'worthless,' but an obsolete coin retains some value as metal.

^b See p. 283, note ^c.

^c That is, 'after any unfair exchange one party has too much by just the amount by which the other has too little. I ought to have given you ten shillings more or something worth that. Then I have ten shillings too much, and you have ten too little; these two tens are my two "excesses"; in respect of the exchange. I am better off than you by twice ten' (Richards). Cf. c. iv. §§ 10-12.

^d For this proverbial phrase see c. iv. §§ 8, 14.

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shoes be to a house, or to a given amount of food ; for without this reciprocal proportion, there can be no exchange and no association ; and it cannot be secured unless the commodities in question be equal in a sense.

- 11 It is therefore necessary that all commodities shall be measured by some one standard, as was said before. And this standard is in reality demand, which is what holds everything together, since if men cease to have wants or if their wants alter, exchange will go on no longer, or will be on different lines. But demand has come to be conventionally represented by money ; this is why money is called *nomisma* (customary currency), because it does not exist by nature but by custom (*nomos*), and can be altered and rendered useless ^a at will.

- 12 There will therefore be reciprocal proportion when the products have been equated, so that as farmer is to shoemaker,^b so may the shoemaker's product be to the farmer's product. And when they exchange their products they must reduce them to the form of a proportion, otherwise one of the two extremes will have both the excesses ^c ; whereas when they have their own,^d they then are equal, and can form an association together, because equality in this sense can be established in their case (farmer A, food C, shoemaker B, shoemaker's product equalized D) ; whereas if it were impossible for reciprocal proportion to be effected in this way, there could be no association between them.

- 13 That it is demand which, by serving as a single standard, holds such an association together, is shown by the fact that, when there is no demand for mutual service on the part of both or at least of one of the parties, no exchange takes place between

ARISTOTLE

τονται [ὥσπερ¹ ὅταν οὐ ἔχει² αὐτὸς δέηταί τις,
 οἶον οἶνον, διδόντες σίτου ἐξαγωγὴν³]. δεῖ ἄρα ¹⁰
¹⁴ τοῦτο ἰσασθῆναι. ὑπὲρ δὲ τῆς μελλούσης ἀλλα-
 γῆς, εἰ νῦν μηδὲν δεῖται, ὅτι ἔσται ἐὰν δεηθῇ,
 τὸ νόμισμα οἶον ἐγγυητῆς ἐσθ' ἡμῖν· δεῖ γὰρ τοῦτο
 φέροντι εἶναι λαβεῖν. πάσχει μὲν οὖν καὶ τοῦτο
 τὸ αὐτό, οὐ γὰρ αἰεὶ ἴσον δύναται· ὁμῶς δὲ βούλεται
 μένειν μᾶλλον. διὸ δεῖ πάντα τετιμῆσθαι· οὕτω ¹⁵
 γὰρ αἰεὶ ἔσται ἀλλαγὴ, εἰ δὲ τοῦτο, κοινωνία. τὸ
 δὴ νόμισμα ὥσπερ μέτρον σύμμετρα ποιῆσαν ἰσά-
 ζει· οὔτε γὰρ ἂν μὴ οὔσης ἀλλαγῆς κοινωνία ᾖν,
 οὔτ' ἀλλαγὴ ἰσότητος μὴ οὔσης, οὔτ' ἰσότης μὴ
 οὔσης συμμετρίας. τῇ μὲν οὖν ἀληθείᾳ ἀδύνατον
 τὰ τοσοῦτον διαφέροντα σύμμετρα γενέσθαι, πρὸς ²⁰
¹⁵ δὲ τὴν χρεῖαν ἐνδέχεται ἱκανῶς. ἐν δὴ τι δεῖ
 εἶναι, τοῦτο δ' ἐξ ὑποθέσεως (διὸ νόμισμα κα-
 λεῖται)· τοῦτο γὰρ πάντα ποιεῖ σύμμετρα· μετρεῖ-
 ται γὰρ πάντα νομίσματι. οἰκία Α, μοναὶ δέκα
 Β, κλίνη Γ. τὸ δὴ Α τοῦ Β ἡμῖς (εἰ πέντε μνῶν

¹ [ὥσπερ . . . ἐξαγωγὴν] ed.: ὥσπερ . . . ἰσασθῆναι secl. Ramsauer.

² οὐ ἔχει: οὐχὶ K^b, οὐ οὐκ ἔχει Munscher. ³ ἐξαγωγῆς K^b.

^a The clauses bracketed make neither grammar nor sense, and have justly been suspected as interpolated. Munscher inserts a negative: 'Just as there is no exchange when the producer wants what the consumer has <not> got, for example, when one state needs wine while another can only offer corn for export.' But there seems to be no question here of foreign commerce.

them [as when someone needs something that one has oneself, for instance wine, the state offering a license to export corn].^a This inequality of demand has therefore to be equalized.

- 14 Now money serves us as a guarantee of exchange in the future: supposing we need nothing at the moment, it ensures that exchange shall be possible when a need arises, for it meets the requirement of something we can produce in payment so as to obtain the thing we need. Money, it is true, is liable to the same fluctuation of demand as other commodities, for its purchasing power varies at different times; but it tends to be comparatively constant. Hence the proper thing is for all commodities to have their prices fixed; this will ensure that exchange, and consequently association, shall always be possible. Money then serves as a measure which makes things commensurable and so reduces them to equality. If there were no exchange there would be no association, and there can be no exchange without equality, and no equality without commensurability. Though therefore it is impossible for things so different to become commensurable in the strict sense, our demand furnishes a sufficiently accurate common measure for practical purposes.
- 15 There must therefore be some one standard, and this accepted by agreement (which is why it is called *nomisma*, customary currency); for such a standard makes all things commensurable, since all things can be measured by money. Let A be a house, B ten minae and C a bedstead. Then $A = \frac{B}{2}$ (supposing the house to be worth, or equal to, five minae),

- ἀξία ἢ οἰκία, ἢ ἴσον), ἢ δὲ κλῆνη δέκατον μέρος τὸ ²⁵
 Γ τοῦ Β· δῆλον τοίνυν πόσαι κλῆναι ἴσον οἰκία, ὅτι
 16 πέντε. ὅτι δ' οὕτως ἢ ἀλλαγὴ ἦν πρὶν τὸ νόμισμα
 εἶναι, δῆλον· διαφέρει γὰρ οὐδὲν ἢ κλῆναι πέντε
 ἀντὶ οἰκίας, ἢ ὅσου αἱ πέντε κλῆναι.
- 17 Τί μὲν οὖν τὸ ἄδικον καὶ τί τὸ δίκαιόν ἐστιν,
 εἴρηται. διωρισμένων δὲ τούτων δῆλον ὅτι ἢ ³⁰
 δικαιοπραγία μέσον ἐστὶ τοῦ ἀδικεῖν καὶ ἀδικεῖ-
 σθαι· τὸ μὲν γὰρ πλεόν ἔχειν τὸ δ' ἑλαττόν ἐστιν.
 ἢ δὲ δικαιοσύνη μεσότης τίς¹ ἐστίν, οὐ τὸν αὐτὸν
 δὲ² τρόπον ταῖς ἄλλαις³ ἀρεταῖς, ἀλλ' ὅτι μέσου
 ἐστίν, ἢ δ' ἀδικία τῶν ἄκρων. καὶ ἢ μὲν δικαιο- ¹¹³⁴
 σύνη ἐστὶ καθ' ἣν ὁ δίκαιος λέγεται πρακτικὸς
 κατὰ προαίρεσιν τοῦ δικαίου, καὶ διανεμητικὸς καὶ
 αὐτῷ πρὸς ἄλλον καὶ ἐτέρῳ πρὸς ἕτερον οὐχ οὕτως
 ὥστε τοῦ μὲν αἵρετοῦ πλεόν αὐτῷ ἑλαττον δὲ τῷ
 πλησίον, τοῦ βλαβεροῦ δ' ἀνάπαλιν, ἀλλὰ τοῦ ἴσου ⁵
 τοῦ κατ' ἀναλογίαν, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἄλλῳ πρὸς
 18 ἄλλον. ἢ δ' ἀδικία τοῦναντίον τοῦ ἀδίκου, τοῦτο
 δ' ἐστὶν ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις τοῦ ὠφελίμου ἢ
 βλαβεροῦ παρὰ τὸ ἀνάλογον. διὸ ὑπερβολὴ καὶ
 ἔλλειψις ἢ ἀδικία, ὅτι ὑπερβολῆς καὶ ἐλλείψεως
 ἐστίν, ἐφ' αὐτοῦ μὲν ὑπερβολῆς μὲν τοῦ ἀπλῶς
 ὠφελίμου, ἐλλείψεως δὲ τοῦ βλαβεροῦ, ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν ¹⁰

¹ τίς om. Γ^b.² δὲ om. Γ^b.³ ἄλλαις K^bL^b: πρότερον M^b et fort. Γ.

^a That is, when A distributes unjustly not between himself and B but between B and C, the result for either B or C may be either excess or defect, either too large a share or too small of something beneficial (and either too small a share or too large of something harmful).

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. v. 15-18

and C (the bedstead) = $\frac{B}{10}$; it is now clear how many

16 bedsteads are equal to one house, namely five. It is clear that before money existed this is how the rate of exchange was actually stated—five beds for a house—since there is no real difference between that and the price of five beds for a house.

17 We have now stated what Justice and Injustice are in principle. From the definition given, it is plain that just conduct is a mean between doing and suffering injustice, for the former is to have too much and the latter to have too little. And Justice is a mode of observing the mean, though not in the same way as the other virtues are, but because it results in a mean, while Injustice results in the extremes. Also, Justice is that quality in virtue of which a man is said to be disposed to do by deliberate choice that which is just, and, when distributing things between himself and another, or between two others, not to give too much to himself and too little to his neighbour of what is desirable, and too little to himself and too much to his neighbour of what is harmful, but to each what is proportionately equal; and similarly when he is
 18 distributing between two other persons. Injustice on the contrary is similarly related to that which is unjust, which is a disproportionate excess or deficiency of something beneficial or harmful. Hence Injustice is excess and defect, in the sense that it results in excess and defect: namely, in the offender's own case, an excess of anything that is generally speaking beneficial and a deficiency of anything harmful, and in the case of others,^a though the result as a whole

Justice as
Mean.

ARISTOTLE

ἄλλων τὸ μὲν ὅλον ὁμοίως, τὸ δὲ παρὰ τὸ ἀνάλογον ὅποτέρως ἔτυχεν.—τοῦ δὲ ἀδικήματος τὸ μὲν ἔλαττον τὸ ἀδικεῖσθαι ἐστὶ, τὸ δὲ μείζον τὸ ἀδικεῖν.

19 Περὶ μὲν οὖν δικαιοσύνης καὶ ἀδικίας, τίς ἐκατέρας ἐστὶν ἢ φύσις, εἰρήσθω τοῦτον τὸν 15 τρόπον, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ τοῦ δικαίου καὶ ἀδίκου καθόλου.

vi Ἐπεὶ δ' ἔστιν ἀδικοῦντα μήπω ἄδικον εἶναι, ὃ ποῖα ἀδικήματα ἀδικῶν ἤδη ἄδικός ἐστιν ἐκάστην ἀδικίαν, οἷον κλέπτῃς ἢ μοιχὸς ἢ ληστής; ἢ οὕτω μὲν οὐδὲν διοίσει; καὶ γὰρ ἂν συγγένοιτο γυναικὶ 20 εἰδῶς τὸ ἦ, ἀλλ' οὐ διὰ προαιρέσεως ἀρχὴν ἀλλὰ 2 διὰ πάθος· ἀδικεῖ μὲν οὖν, ἄδικος δ' οὐκ ἔστιν, οἷον οὐ¹ κλέπτῃς, ἔκλεψε δέ, οὐδὲ μοιχὸς, ἐμοίχευσε δέ· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων.

3 Πῶς μὲν οὖν ἔχει τὸ ἀντιπεπονθὸς πρὸς τὸ δίκαιον, εἴρηται πρότερον.

4 Δεῖ δὲ μὴ λανθάνειν ὅτι τὸ ζητούμενόν ἐστι καὶ 25 τὸ ἀπλῶς δίκαιον καὶ τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον. τοῦτο δὲ ἐστὶν [ἐπὶ]² κοινωνῶν βίου πρὸς τὸ εἶναι αὐτάρκειαν, ἐλευθέρων καὶ ἴσων ἢ κατ' ἀναλογίαν ἢ κατ' ἀριθμόν· ὥστε ὅσοις μὴ ἐστὶ τοῦτο, οὐκ ἔστι τοῦτο πρὸς ἀλλήλους τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον, ἀλλὰ τι δίκαιον καὶ καθ' ὁμοιότητα. ἔστι γὰρ δίκαιον, 30 οἷς καὶ νόμος πρὸς αὐτούς· νόμος δ', ἐν οἷς ἀδικία·

¹ οὐ K^b; οὐδὲ vulg., Hampke (seclusis οὐδὲ μοιχὸς, ἐμοίχευσε δέ).
² [ἐπὶ] Susemihl: om. L^b.

^a §§ 1, 2, are an irrelevant fragment which Jackson would insert in c. viii. 8 after βλαβή; § 3 he would transpose to the beginning of c. x.; § 4 continues the end of c. v.

is the same, the deviation from proportion may be in either direction as the case may be.

Of the injustice done, the smaller part is the suffering and the larger part the doing of injustice.

19 So much may be said about the nature of Justice and Injustice, and of the Just and the Unjust regarded universally.

vi ^a But seeing that a man may commit injustice without actually being unjust, what is it that distinguishes those unjust acts the commission of which renders a man actually unjust under one of the various forms of injustice, for example, a thief or an adulterer or a brigand? Or shall we rather say that the distinction does not lie in the quality of the act? For a man may have intercourse with a woman knowing who she is, yet not from the motive of deliberate choice, but under the influence of passion; in such a case, though he has committed injustice, he is not an unjust man: for instance, he is not a thief, though guilty of theft, not an adulterer, though he has committed adultery, and so forth.

3 The relation of Reciprocity to Justice has been stated already.

4 But we must not forget that the subject of our investigation is at once Justice in the absolute sense and Political Justice. Political Justice means justice as between free and (actually or proportionately) equal persons, living a common life for the purpose of satisfying their needs. Hence between people not free and equal political justice cannot exist, but only a sort of justice in a metaphorical sense. For justice can only exist between those whose mutual relations are regulated by law, and law exists among those between whom there is a possibility of injustice,

Political
Justice.

ARISTOTLE

ἡ γὰρ δίκη κρίσις τοῦ δικαίου καὶ τοῦ ἀδίκου· ἐν
 οἷς δὴ¹ ἀδικία, καὶ τὸ ἀδικεῖν ἐν τούτοις (ἐν οἷς δὲ
 τὸ ἀδικεῖν, οὐ πᾶσι ἀδικία), τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶ τὸ
 πλεόν αὐτῷ νέμειν τῶν ἀπλῶς ἀγαθῶν, ἔλαττον δὲ
 5 τῶν ἀπλῶς κακῶν. διὸ οὐκ ἐῷμεν ἄρχειν ἄνθρω- 35
 πον, ἀλλὰ τὸν νόμον,² ὅτι ἑαυτῷ τοῦτο ποιεῖ, καὶ 1134 b
 γίνεται τύραννος· ἔστι δ' ὁ ἄρχων φύλαξ τοῦ
 6 δικαίου, εἰ δὲ τοῦ δικαίου, καὶ τοῦ ἴσου. ἐπεὶ δ'
 οὐθὲν αὐτῷ πλεόν εἶναι δοκεῖ, εἴπερ δίκαιος (οὐ
 γὰρ νέμει πλεόν τοῦ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθοῦ αὐτῷ, εἰ μὴ
 πρὸς αὐτὸν ἀνάλογόν ἐστιν· διὸ ἑτέρῳ πονεῖ³· 5
 καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἀλλότριον εἶναί φασιν ἀγαθὸν τὴν
 7 δικαιοσύνην, καθάπερ ἐλέχθη καὶ πρότερον), μισθὸς
 ἄρα τις δοτέος, τοῦτο δὲ τιμὴ καὶ γέρας· ὅτῳ δὲ
 8 μὴ ἱκανὰ τὰ τοιαῦτα, οὗτοι γίνονται τύραννοι. τὸ
 δὲ δεσποτικὸν δίκαιον καὶ τὸ πατρικὸν οὐ ταυτὸν
 τούτοις ἀλλ' ὁμοιον· οὐ γάρ ἐστιν ἀδικία πρὸς τὰ 10
 αὐτοῦ ἀπλῶς, τὸ δὲ κτῆμα καὶ τὸ τέκνον, ἕως ἄν
 ἦ πηλίκον καὶ⁴ χωρισθῇ, ὥσπερ μέρος αὐτοῦ,
 9 αὐτὸν δ' οὐθεὶς προαιρεῖται βλάπτειν· διὸ οὐκ
 ἔστιν ἀδικία πρὸς αὐτά⁵. οὐδ' ἄρα ἀδικον οὐδὲ
 δίκαιον τὸ πολιτικόν· κατὰ νόμον γὰρ ἦν, καὶ ἐν
 οἷς ἐπεφύκει εἶναι νόμος· οὗτοι δ' ἦσαν οἷς ὑπάρχει 15

¹ δὴ Munscher: δὲ.² νόμον M^b: λόγον.³ ποιεῖ Sylburg, Bekker.⁴ καὶ μὴ L^b.⁵ αὐτά Ramsauer: αὐτόν.^a See c. i. 17 note.

for the administration of the law means the discrimination of what is just and what is unjust. Persons therefore between whom injustice can exist can act unjustly towards each other (although unjust action does not necessarily involve injustice): to act unjustly meaning to assign oneself too large a share of things generally good and too small a share
 5 of things generally evil. This is why we do not permit a man to rule, but the law, because a man rules in his own interest, and becomes a tyrant; but the function of a ruler is to be the guardian of
 6 justice, and if of justice, then of equality. A just ruler seems to make nothing out of his office; for he does not allot to himself a larger share of things generally good, unless it be proportionate to his merits; so that he labours for others, which accounts for the saying mentioned above,^a that 'Justice is the
 7 good of others.' Consequently some recompense has to be given him, in the shape of honour and dignity. It is those whom such rewards do not satisfy who make themselves tyrants.

8 Justice between master and slave and between father and child is not the same as absolute and political justice, but only analogous to them. For there is no such thing as injustice in the absolute sense towards what is one's own; and a chattel, or a child till it reaches a certain age and becomes independent, is, as it were, a part of oneself, and no
 9 one chooses to harm himself; hence there can be no injustice towards them, and therefore nothing just or unjust in the political sense. For these, as we saw, are embodied in law, and exist between persons whose relations are naturally regulated by law, that is, persons who share equally in ruling and

Domestic
Justice.

ARISTOTLE

ισότης τοῦ ἄρχειν καὶ ἄρχεσθαι. διὸ μᾶλλον πρὸς
γυναικά ἐστι δίκαιον ἢ πρὸς τέκνα καὶ κτήματα·
τοῦτο γάρ ἐστι τὸ οἰκονομικὸν δίκαιον· ἕτερον δέ
καὶ τοῦτο τοῦ πολιτικοῦ.

- vii Τοῦ δὲ πολιτικοῦ δικαίου τὸ μὲν φυσικὸν ἐστι
τὸ δὲ νομικόν, φυσικὸν μὲν τὸ πανταχοῦ τὴν αὐτὴν
ἔχον δύναμιν, καὶ οὐ τῷ δοκεῖν ἢ μή, νομικὸν δὲ ²⁰
ὃ ἐξ ἀρχῆς μὲν οὐθὲν διαφέρει οὕτως ἢ ἄλλως,
ὅταν δὲ θῶνται, διαφέρει, οἷον τὸ μνᾶς λυτροῦσθαι,
ἢ τὸ αἶγα θύειν ἀλλὰ μὴ¹ δύο πρόβατα, ἔτι ὅσα
ἐπὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα νομοθετοῦσιν, οἷον τὸ θύειν
² Βρασίδα, καὶ τὰ ψηφισματώδη. δοκεῖ δ' ἐνίοις
εἶναι πάντα τοιαῦτα, ὅτι τὸ μὲν φύσει ἀκίνητον ²⁵
καὶ πανταχοῦ τὴν αὐτὴν ἔχει δύναμιν, ὥσπερ τὸ
πῦρ καὶ ἐνθάδε καὶ ἐν Πέρσiais καίει, τὰ δὲ δίκαια
³ κινούμενα ὁρώσω τοῦτο δ' οὐκ ἔστιν οὕτως ἔχον,
ἀλλ' ἔστιν ὥς. καίτοι παρά γε τοῖς θεοῖς ἴσως
οὐδαμῶς· παρ' ἡμῖν δ' ἐστὶ μὲν τι καὶ φύσει,
κίνητον μέντοι πᾶν· ἀλλ' ὅμως² ἐστὶ τὸ μὲν φύσει ³⁰

¹ ἀλλὰ μὴ: *μίαν* ἢ? Jackson.

² *quattuor sententias* ἀλλ' ὅμως . . . οὐ φύσει, πόλον δὲ . . .
ἀδελον (pro *δηλον*), καὶ ἐπὶ . . . διορισμός, φύσει γὰρ . . . γενεσθαι
inverso ordine tr. Richards.

^a The Spartan Brasidas detached Amphipolis from the Athenian empire 424 B.C., and fell defending it against Cleon 422. He was worshipped as a hero by the city, 'with games and yearly sacrifices' (Thucydides, v. xi.).

^b The order of the following sentences seems confused. With the transpositions suggested by Richards, and the emendations given in the critical notes, they will run: 'But in our world, although there is such a thing as natural law, yet everything is capable of change. For example, the right hand is naturally stronger than the left, yet it is
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NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. vi. 9—vii. 3

being ruled. Hence Justice exists in a fuller degree between husband and wife than between father and children, or master and slaves; in fact, justice between husband and wife is Domestic Justice in the real sense, though this too is different from Political Justice.

- vii Political Justice is of two kinds, one natural, the other conventional. A rule of justice is natural that has the same validity everywhere, and does not depend on our accepting it or not. A rule is conventional that in the first instance may be settled in one way or the other indifferently, though having once been settled it is not indifferent: for example, that the ransom for a prisoner shall be a mina, that a sacrifice shall consist of a goat and not of two sheep; and any regulations enacted for particular cases, for instance the sacrifice in honour of Brasidas,^a and 2 ordinances in the nature of special decrees. Some people think that all rules of justice are merely conventional, because whereas a law of nature is immutable and has the same validity everywhere, as fire burns both here and in Persia, rules of justice 3 are seen to vary. That rules of justice vary is not absolutely true, but only with qualifications. Among the gods indeed it is perhaps not true at all; but in our world,^b although there is such a thing as Natural Justice, all rules of justice are variable. But nevertheless there is such a thing as Natural

Political
Justice
etc. : na-
ral and
legal
justice.

possible for some persons to be born ambidextrous; and the same distinction will hold good in all matters; though what sort of things that admit of variation are as they are by nature, and what are merely customary and conventional, it is not easy to see, inasmuch as both alike are capable of change. But nevertheless some things are ordained by nature and others not.'

ARISTOTLE

4 τὸ δ' οὐ φύσει. ποῖον δὲ φύσει τῶν ἐνδεχομένων
 καὶ ἄλλως ἔχειν, καὶ ποῖον οὐ ἀλλὰ νομικόν καὶ
 συνθήκη, εἴπερ ἄμφω κινήτὰ ὁμοίως, δηλόν.¹ καὶ
 ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων ὁ αὐτὸς ἀρμόσει διορισμός· φύσει
 γὰρ ἡ δεξιὰ κρείττων, καίτοι ἐνδέχεται πάντας²
 5 ἀμφιδεξίους γενέσθαι.³ τὰ δὲ κατὰ συνθήκην καὶ ³⁵
 τὸ συμφέρον τῶν δικαίων ὁμοιά ἐστι τοῖς μέτροις· 1135 a
 οὐ γὰρ πανταχοῦ ἴσα τὰ οἰνηρὰ καὶ σιτηρὰ μέτρα,
 ἀλλ' οὐ μὲν ὠνοῦνται, μείζω, οὐ δὲ πωλοῦσιν,
 ἐλάττω. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὰ μὴ φυσικὰ ἀλλ' ἀνθρώ-
 πωνα δίκαια οὐ ταῦτὰ πανταχοῦ, ἐπεὶ οὐδ' αἱ πολι-
 τεῖαι, ἀλλὰ μία μόνον πανταχοῦ κατὰ φύσιν ἡ ⁵
 6 ἀρίστη. τῶν δὲ δικαίων καὶ νομίμων ἕκαστον ὥς
 τὰ καθόλου πρὸς τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα ἔχει· τὰ μὲν γὰρ
 πραττόμενα πολλά, ἐκείνων δ' ἕκαστον ἐν· καθόλου
 7 γάρ. διαφέρει δὲ τὸ ἀδίκημα καὶ τὸ ἄδικον καὶ
 τὸ δικαίωμα καὶ τὸ δίκαιον· ἄδικον μὲν γάρ ἐστι ¹⁰
 τῇ φύσει ἢ τάξει· τὸ αὐτὸ δὲ τοῦτο, ὅταν πραχθῇ,
 ἀδίκημά ἐστι, πρὶν δὲ πραχθῆναι, οὕπω, ἀλλ'
 ἄδικον—ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ δικαίωμα (καλεῖται δὲ
 μᾶλλον δικαιοπράγημα τὸ κοινόν, δικαίωμα δὲ
 τὸ ἐπ' ἀνθρώπου τοῦ ἀδικήματος). καθ' ἕκαστον δὲ
 αὐτῶν, ποῖά τε εἶδη καὶ πόσα καὶ περὶ ποῖα
 τυγχάνει ὄντα, ὕστερον ἐπισκεπτέον. 15

¹ ἄδηλον Paley.² πάντας om. Γ: τινας Wilkinson.³ γίνεσθαι? ed.

Justice as well as justice not ordained by nature ;
 4 and it is easy to see which rules of justice, though not absolute, are natural, and which are not natural but legal and conventional, both sorts alike being variable. The same distinction will hold good in all other matters ; for instance, the right hand is naturally stronger than the left, yet it is possible for any man to make himself ambidextrous.

5 The rules of justice based on convention and expediency are like standard measures. Corn and wine measures are not equal in all places, but are larger in wholesale and smaller in retail markets. Similarly the rules of justice ordained not by nature but by man are not the same in all places, since forms of government are not the same, though in all places there is only one form of government that is natural, namely, the best form.

6 The several rules of justice and of law are related to the actions conforming with them as universals to particulars, for the actions done are many, while each rule or law is one, being universal.

7 There is a difference between 'that which is unjust' and 'unjust conduct,' and between 'that which is just' and 'just conduct.' Nature or ordinance pronounces a thing unjust : when that thing is done, it is 'unjust conduct' ; till it is done, it is only 'unjust.' And similarly with 'just conduct,' *dikaiôma* ((or more correctly, the general term is *dikaïopragêma*, *dikaiôma* denoting the rectification of an act of injustice).

We shall have later to consider the several rules of justice and of law, and to enumerate their various kinds and describe them and the things with which they deal.

ARISTOTLE

- viii Ὀντων δὲ τῶν δικαίων καὶ ἀδίκων τῶν εἰρη-
 μένων, ἀδικεῖ μὲν καὶ δικαιοπραγεῖ, ὅταν ἐκὼν τις
 αὐτὰ πράττῃ· ὅταν δ' ἄκων, οὐτ' ἀδικεῖ οὔτε
 δικαιοπραγεῖ ἀλλ' ἢ κατὰ συμβεβηκός· οἷς γὰρ
 συμβέβηκε δικαίοις εἶναι ἢ ἀδίκους, πράττουσιν.
 2 ἀδίκημα δὴ¹ καὶ δικαιοπράγημα ὥρισταί τῳ ἐκούσίῳ²⁰
 καὶ ἀκουσίῳ· ὅταν γὰρ ἐκούσιον ᾖ, ψέγεται, ἅμα
 δὲ καὶ ἀδίκημα τότε ἐστίν· ὥστ' ἔσται τι ἄδικον
 μὲν, ἀδίκημα δ' οὐπω, εἰ μὴ τὸ ἐκούσιον προσῇ.
 3 λέγω δ' ἐκούσιον μὲν, ὥσπερ καὶ πρότερον εἴρηται,
 ὃ ἂν τις τῶν ἐφ' αὐτῷ ὄντων εἰδὼς καὶ μὴ ἀγνοῶν
 πράττῃ μήτε ὄν μήτε ᾧ μήτε οὐ <ἐνεκα>² (οἷον²⁵
 τίνα τύπτει καὶ τίνι καὶ τίνος ἐνεκα), ἀκακίων
 ἕκαστον μὴ κατὰ συμβεβηκός μηδὲ βία· ὥσπερ· εἴ
 τις λαβὼν τὴν χεῖρα αὐτοῦ τύπτει ἕτερον, οὐχ
 ἐκὼν· οὐ γὰρ ἐπ' αὐτῷ. ἐνδέχεται δὲ τὸν τυπτό-
 μενον πατέρα εἶναι, τὸν δ' ὅτι μὲν ἄνθρωπος ἢ
 τῶν παρόντων τις γινώσκειν, ὅτι δὲ πατὴρ ἀγνοεῖν.³⁰
 ὁμοίως δὲ τὸ τοιοῦτον διωρίσθω καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ οὐ
 ἐνεκα, καὶ περὶ τὴν πρᾶξιν ὅλην. τὸ δὲ ἀγνοοῦ-
 μενον, ἢ μὴ ἀγνοούμενον μὲν μὴ ἐπ' αὐτῷ δ'
 ὄν, ἢ βία, ἀκούσιον· πολλὰ γὰρ καὶ τῶν φύσει ὑπ-
 αρχόντων εἰδότες καὶ πράττομεν καὶ πάσχομεν, ὧν 1135 b

¹ δὴ Munscher: δέ.² <ἐνεκα> add Γ.^a III. i. 19.^b i.e., mistake, ignorance: as in the illustration, it is an accident that the person struck is the striker's father.^c Sc., of whom he knows his father to be one.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. viii. 1-3

- viii Such being an account of just and unjust actions, it is their voluntary performance that constitutes just and unjust conduct. If a man does them involuntarily, he cannot be said to act justly, or unjustly, except accidentally, in the sense that he does an act which
- 2 is just or unjust accidentally. Whether therefore an action is or is not an act of injustice, or of justice, depends on its voluntary or involuntary character. When it is involuntary, the agent is blamed, and only in that case is the action an act of injustice ; so that it is possible for an act to be unjust without being an act of injustice, if the qualification of
- 3 voluntariness be absent. By a voluntary action, as has been said before,^a I mean any action within the agent's own control which he performs knowingly, that is, without being in ignorance of the person affected, the instrument employed, and the result (for example, he must know whom he strikes, and with what weapon, and the effect of the blow) ; and in each of these respects both accident^b and compulsion must be excluded. For instance, if A took hold of B's hand and with it struck C, B would not be a voluntary agent, since the act would not be in his own control. Or again, a man may strike his father without knowing that it is his father, though aware that he is striking some person, and perhaps that it is one or other of the persons present^c ; and ignorance may be similarly defined with reference to the result, and to the circumstances of the action generally. An involuntary act is therefore an act done in ignorance, or else one that though not done in ignorance is not in the agent's control, or is done under compulsion ; since there are many natural processes too that we perform or undergo knowingly,

Justice
Respon-
sibility ;
Volunta-
(cf. III. 1

ARISTOTLE

- οὐθὲν¹ οὐθ' ἐκούσιον οὐτ' ἀκούσιόν ἐστιν, οἷον τὸ
 4 γηρᾶν ἢ ἀποθνήσκειν. ἔστι δ' ὁμοίως ἐπὶ τῶν
 ἀδίκων καὶ τῶν δικαίων καὶ τὸ κατὰ συμβεβηκός·
 καὶ γὰρ ἂν τὴν παρακαταθήκην ἀποδοίη τις ἄκων
 καὶ διὰ φόβον, ὃν οὐτε δίκαια πράττειν οὐτε 5
 δικαιοπραγεῖν φατέον ἀλλ' ἢ κατὰ συμβεβηκός.
 ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὸν ἀναγκαζόμενον καὶ ἄκοντα τὴν
 παρακαταθήκην μὴ ἀποδιδόντα κατὰ συμβεβηκός
 5 φατέον ἀδικεῖν καὶ τὰ ἀδिका πράττειν. τῶν δὲ
 ἐκούσιων τὰ μὲν προελόμενοι πράττομεν τὰ δ' οὐ
 προελόμενοι, προελόμενοι μὲν ὅσα προβουλευσά- 10
 μενοι, ἀπροαίρετα δὲ ὅσα ἀπροβούλευτα.
- 6 Τριῶν δὴ οὐσῶν βλαβῶν τῶν ἐν ταῖς κοινωνίαις,
 τὰ μὲν μετ' ἀγνοίας ἀμαρτήματά ἐστιν, ὅταν μήτε
 ὃν μήτε ὃ μήτε ᾧ μήτε οὐ ἔνεκα ὑπέλαβε πράξῃ.
 ἢ γὰρ οὐ βάλλειν² ἢ οὐ τούτῳ ἢ οὐ τοῦτον ἢ οὐ
 τούτου ἔνεκα ᾧθήῃ, ἀλλὰ συνέβη οὐχ οὐ ἔνεκα 15
 ᾧθήῃ (οἷον οὐχ ἵνα τρώσῃ ἀλλ' ἵνα κεντήσῃ) ἢ οὐχ
 7 ὃν ἢ οὐχ ᾧ.³ ὅταν μὲν οὖν παραλόγως ἢ βλάβῃ
 γένηται, ἀτύχημα· ὅταν δὲ μὴ παραλόγως, ἄνευ δὲ
 κακίας, ἀμάρτημα (ἀμαρτάνει μὲν γὰρ ὅταν ἡ ἀρχὴ
 ἐν αὐτῷ ἢ τῆς ἀγνοίας,⁴ ἀτυχεῖ δ' ὅταν ἔξωθεν)·

¹ οὐθὲν <οὐτ' ἐφ' ἡμῖν> οὐθ' ἐκούσιον [οὐτ' ἀκούσιον] Rassow.

² βάλλειν K^b: βαλεῖν.

³ ᾧ K^b: ὡς.

⁴ ἀγνοίας Jackson: αἰτίας.

^a 'Involuntary' is certainly corrupt: perhaps Aristotle wrote 'in our control.'

^b The three sorts of injury are ἀτύχημα, ἀμάρτημα, and ἀδίκημα. The second term is introduced first, in its wider sense of a mistake which leads to an offence against some one else (the word connotes both things). It is then subdivided into two: ἀτύχημα, accident or misadventure, an offence
 300

though none of them is either voluntary or involuntary ^a ; for example, growing old, and dying.

4 Also an act may be either just or unjust by accident. A man may restore a deposit unwillingly and from fear of consequences, and we must not then say that he does a just act, nor that he acts justly, except accidentally ; and similarly a man who under compulsion and against his will fails to restore a deposit can only be said to act unjustly or do what is unjust accidentally.

5 Again voluntary acts are divided into acts done by choice and those done not by choice, the former being those done after deliberation and the latter those done without previous deliberation.

6 There are then three ways ^b in which a man may injure his fellow. An injury done in ignorance is an error, the person affected or the act or the instrument or the result being other than the agent supposed ; for example, he did not think to hit, or not with this missile, or not this person, or not with this result, but it happened that either the result was other than he expected (for instance he did not mean to inflict a wound but only a prick), or the person,

7 or the missile. When then the injury happens contrary to reasonable expectation, it is (1) a misadventure. When, though not contrary to reasonable expectation, it is done without evil intent, it is (2) a culpable error ; for an error is culpable when the cause of one's ignorance lies in oneself, but only a misadventure when the cause lies outside oneself.

due to mistake and not reasonably to be expected, and ἀμάρτημα in the narrow sense, a similar offence that ought to have been foreseen. The third term, ἀδίκημα, a wrong, is subdivided into wrongs done in a passion, which do not prove wickedness, and wrongs done deliberately, which do.

ARISTOTLE

- 8 ὅταν δὲ εἰδὼς μὲν μὴ προβουλεύσας δέ, ἀδίκημα, 20
οἷον ὅσα τε διὰ θυμὸν καὶ ἄλλα πάθη ὅσα ἀναγ-
καῖα ἢ φυσικά συμβαίνει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις· ταῦτα
γὰρ βλάπτοντες καὶ ἁμαρτάνοντες ἀδικοῦσι μὲν,
καὶ ἀδικήματα ἐστίν, οὐ μέντοι πῶς ἀδικοὶ διὰ
ταῦτα οὐδὲ πονηροί· οὐ γὰρ διὰ μοχθηρίαν ἢ
βλάβη¹ ὅταν δ' ἐκ προαιρέσεως, ἄδικος καὶ 25
9 μοχθηρός. διὸ καλῶς τὰ ἐκ θυμοῦ οὐκ ἐκ προ-
νοίας κρίνεται· οὐ γὰρ ἄρχει ὁ θυμῷ ποιῶν, ἀλλ'
10 ὁ ὀργίσας. ἔτι δὲ οὐδὲ περὶ τοῦ γενέσθαι ἢ μὴ
ἀμφισβητεῖται, ἀλλὰ περὶ τοῦ δικαίου (ἐπὶ φαινο-
μένη γὰρ ἀδικία ἢ ὀργή ἐστίν)· οὐ γὰρ ὥσπερ ἐν
τοῖς συναλλάγμασι περὶ τοῦ γενέσθαι ἀμφι- 30
σβητοῦσιν, ὣν ἀνάγκη τὸν ἕτερον εἶναι μοχθηρόν,
ἂν μὴ διὰ λήθην αὐτὸ δρῶσιν· ἀλλ' ὁμολογοῦντες
περὶ τοῦ πράγματος, περὶ τοῦ ποτέρως δίκαιον
ἀμφισβητοῦσιν, [ὁ δ' ἐπιβουλεύσας οὐκ ἀγνοεῖ²]
11 ὥστε ὁ μὲν οἶεται ἀδικεῖσθαι, ὁ δ' οὐ.* ἂν δ' ἐκ 1136 a
προαιρέσεως βλάβη, ἀδικεῖ· καὶ κατὰ ταῦτ' ἤδη
τὰ ἀδικήματα ὁ ἀδικῶν ἄδικος, ὅταν παρὰ τὸ
ἀνάλογον ἢ ἢ παρὰ τὸ ἴσον. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ
δίκαιος, ὅταν προελόμενος δικαιοπραγῇ. δικαιο-
12 πραγεῖ δέ, ἂν μόνον³ ἐκὼν πράττη. τῶν δ' ἀκου- 5
σίων. τὰ μὲν ἐστὶ συγγνωμονικά τὰ δ' οὐ συγ-
γνωμονικά· ὅσα μὲν γὰρ μὴ μόνον ἀγνοοῦντες
ἀλλὰ καὶ δι' ἄγνοιαν ἁμαρτάνουσι, συγγνωμονικά,
ὅσα δὲ μὴ δι' ἄγνοιαν, ἀλλ' ἀγνοοῦντες μὲν διὰ

¹ post βλάβη inseruit c. vi. 1, 2 ἐπεὶ δ' ἔστιν . . . τῶν ἄλλων Jackson.

² ὁ δ' . . . ἀγνοεῖ infra post ὁ δ' οὐ tr. Richards.

³ μόνον aut ante ἂν ponendum aut secludendum Spengel.

- 8 When an injury is done knowingly but not deliberately, it is (3) an act of injustice or wrong ; such, for instance, are injuries done through anger, or any other unavoidable or natural passion to which men are liable ; since in committing these injuries and errors a man acts unjustly, and his action is an act of injustice, but he is not *ipso facto* unjust or wicked, for the injury was not done out of wickedness. When however an injury is done from choice, the
- 9 doer is unjust and wicked. Hence acts due to sudden anger are rightly held not to be done of malice aforethought, for it is the man who gave the provocation that began it, not he who does the deed
- 10 in a fit of passion. And moreover the issue is not one of fact, but of justification (since it is apparent injustice that arouses anger) ; the fact of the injury is not disputed (as it is in cases of contract, where one or the other of the parties must be a knave, unless they dispute the facts out of forgetfulness). They agree as to the facts but dispute on which side justice lies ; so that one thinks he has been unjustly treated and the other does not. On the other hand, one who has planned an injury is not acting in ignor-
- 11 ance ^a ; but if a man does an injury of set purpose, he is guilty of injustice, and injustice of the sort that renders the doer an unjust man, if it be an act that violates proportion or equality. Similarly one who acts justly on purpose is a just man ; but he acts justly only if he acts voluntarily.
- 12 Of involuntary actions some are pardonable and some are not. Errors not merely committed in ignorance but caused by ignorance are pardonable ; those committed in ignorance, but caused not by

^a In the mss. this clause stands before the preceding one.

ARISTOTLE

πάθος δὲ μήτε φυσικὸν μήτ' ἀνθρώπινον, οὐ συγ-
γνωμονικά.

ix Ἀπορήσειε δ' ἂν τις εἰ ἱκανῶς διώρισται περὶ 10
τοῦ ἀδικεῖσθαι καὶ ἀδικεῖν, πρῶτον μὲν εἰ ἔστιν
ὥσπερ Εὐριπίδης εἴρηκε, λέγων ἀτόπως

μητέρα κατέκταν¹ τὴν ἐμήν, βραχὺς λόγος.
ἐκὼν ἐκούσαν, ἢ <οὐχ> ἐκούσαν² οὐχ ἐκὼν;

πότερον γὰρ ὡς ἀληθῶς ἔστιν ἐκόντα ἀδικεῖσθαι, 15
ἢ οὐ ἀλλ' ἀκούσιον ἅπαν, ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ ἀδικεῖν
πᾶν ἐκούσιον· καὶ ἄρα πᾶν οὕτως ἢ ἐκείνως
[ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ ἀδικεῖν πᾶν ἐκούσιον],³ ἢ τὸ μὲν
2 ἐκούσιον τὸ δ' ἀκούσιον; ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ
δικαιουῖσθαι (τὸ γὰρ δικαιοπραγεῖν πᾶν ἐκούσιον).
ὥστ' εὐλογον ἀντικεῖσθαι ὁμοίως καθ'⁴ ἐκάτερον 20
τό τ' ἀδικεῖσθαι καὶ τὸ δικαιουῖσθαι—ἢ ἐκούσιον
ἢ ἀκούσιον εἶναι. ἀτοπον δ' ἂν δόξειε καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ
δικαιουῖσθαι, εἰ πᾶν ἐκούσιον· ἔνιοι γὰρ δικαιοῦνται
3 οὐχ ἐκόντες. ἐπεὶ⁵ καὶ τόδε διαπορήσειεν ἂν τις,
πότερον ὃ τὸ ἄδικον πεπονθὼς ἀδικεῖται πᾶς ἢ
ὥσπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ πράττειν, καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ πάσχειν 25
ἐστίν· κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς γὰρ ἐνδέχεται ἐπ' ἀμφο-
τέρων μεταλαμβάνειν τῶν δικαίων. ὁμοίως δὲ
δῆλον ὅτι καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀδίκων· οὐ γὰρ ταῦτόν τὸ
τᾶδिका πράττειν τῷ ἀδικεῖν οὐδὲ τὸ ἄδिका πάσχειν

¹ κατέκταν Γ: κατέκτα.

² <οὐχ> ἐκούσαν Jackson: θέλουσαν.

³ Bywater.

⁴ καὶ Rassow.

⁵ ἔπειτα Bywater.

^a Apparently from a dialogue between Alcmaeon and (possibly) Phegeus in the lost play of Euripides named after the former. Cf. III. i. 8.

^b i.e., to suffer wrong; for the wide sense of ἀδικεῖν see c. i. 1, note.

^c Cf. c. viii. 1.

that ignorance but by unnatural or inhuman passion, are unpardonable.

- ix But it may perhaps be doubted whether our discussion of suffering and doing injustice has been sufficiently explicit; and in the first place, whether the matter really is as Euripides has put it in the strange lines ^a—

Can a man
suffer wrong
voluntarily?

‘ I killed my mother—that’s the tale in brief ! ’
‘ Were you both willing, or unwilling both ? ’

- Is it really possible to suffer injustice ^b voluntarily, or on the contrary is suffering injustice always involuntary, just as acting unjustly is always voluntary? And again, is suffering injustice always voluntary, or always involuntary, or sometimes one and sometimes the other? And similarly with being treated justly (acting justly being always voluntary). Thus it would be reasonable to suppose that both being treated unjustly and being treated justly are similarly opposed to acting unjustly and acting justly respectively: that either both are voluntary or both involuntary. But it would seem paradoxical to assert that even being treated justly is always voluntary; for people are sometimes treated justly against their will. The fact is that the further question might be raised, must a man who has had an unjust thing done to him always be said to have been treated unjustly, or does the same thing hold good of suffering as of doing something unjust? One may be a party to a just act, whether as its agent or its object, accidentally.^c And the same clearly is true of an unjust act: doing what is unjust is not identical with acting unjustly, nor yet is suffering what is unjust identical with being treated

ARISTOTLE

τῷ ἀδικεῖσθαι, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ δικαιο-
 πραγεῖν καὶ δικαιουῖσθαι· ἀδύνατον γὰρ ἀδικεῖσθαι 30
 μὴ ἀδικοῦντος ἢ δικαιουῖσθαι μὴ δικαιοπραγοῦντος.
 4 εἰ δ' ἐστὶν ἀπλῶς τὸ ἀδικεῖν τὸ βλάπτειν ἐκόντα
 τινά, τὸ δ' ἐκόντα εἰδότα καὶ ὄν καὶ ᾧ καὶ ὥς, ὃ
 δ' ἀκρατῆς ἐκὼν βλάπτει αὐτὸς αὐτόν, ἐκὼν τ' ἂν
 ἀδικοῖτο καὶ¹ ἐνδέχοιτο αὐτόν² αὐτόν ἀδικεῖν (ἔστι
 δὲ καὶ τοῦτο ἐν³ τῶν ἀπορουμένων, εἰ ἐνδέχεται 1136 b
 5 αὐτόν αὐτόν ἀδικεῖν). ἔτι ἐκὼν ἂν τις δι' ἀκρασίαν
 ὑπ' ἄλλου βλάπτοιτο ἐκόντος, ὥστ' εἴη ἂν ἐκόντ'
 ἀδικεῖσθαι. ἢ οὐκ ὀρθὸς ὁ διορισμός, ἀλλὰ προσ-
 θετέον τῷ βλάπτειν εἰδότα καὶ ὄν καὶ ᾧ καὶ ὥς
 6 τὸ παρὰ τὴν ἐκείνου βούλησιν; βλάπτεται μὲν 5
 οὖν τις ἐκὼν καὶ τὰδिका πάσχει, ἀδικεῖται δ'
 οὐθεὶς ἐκὼν· οὐθεὶς γὰρ βούλεται, οὐδ' ὁ ἀκρατῆς,
 ἀλλὰ παρὰ τὴν βούλησιν πράττει· οὔτε γὰρ βού-
 λεται οὐθεὶς ὃ μὴ οἶεται εἶναι σπουδαῖον, ὃ τε
 7 ἀκρατῆς ὃ οὐκ⁴ οἶεται δεῖν πράττειν πράττει. ὃ
 δὲ τὰ αὐτοῦ διδούς, ὥσπερ Ὀμηρὸς φησι δοῦναι 10
 τὸν Γλαῦκον τῷ Διομήδει

· χρύσεια χαλκείων, ἑκατόμβοι' ἐννεαβοίων,

οὐκ ἀδικεῖται· ἐπ' αὐτῷ γάρ ἐστι τὸ διδόναι,
 τὸ δ' ἀδικεῖσθαι οὐκ ἐπ' αὐτῷ, ἀλλὰ τὸν ἀδικοῦντα

¹ καὶ vulg.: καὶν K^b.

² αὐτόν ΓM^b: αὐτὸς K^bL^b.

³ ἐν K^b: ἐν τι ΓM^b (om. L^b).

⁴ ὃ οὐκ: οὐχ & K^b.

^a *Iliad*, vi. 236.

unjustly, and the same is true of acting and being treated justly ; for to be treated unjustly requires someone who acts unjustly, and to be treated justly requires someone who acts justly.

- 4 But if to act unjustly is simply to do harm voluntarily, and voluntarily means knowing the person affected, the instrument, and the manner of injury, it will follow both that the man of defective self-restraint, inasmuch as he voluntarily harms himself, voluntarily suffers injustice, and also that it is possible for a man to act unjustly towards himself (for the possibility of this is also a debated question).
- 5 Moreover, lack of self-restraint may make a person voluntarily submit to being harmed by another ; which again would prove that it is possible to suffer injustice voluntarily. But perhaps this definition of acting unjustly is incorrect, and we should add to the words ' to do harm knowing the person affected, the instrument and the manner ' the further qualification
- 6 ' against that person's will.' If so, though a man can be harmed and can have an unjust thing done to him voluntarily, no one can suffer injustice voluntarily, because no one can wish to be harmed : even the unrestrained man does not, but acts contrary to his wish, since no one wishes for a thing that he does not think to be good, and the unrestrained
- 7 man does what he thinks he ought not to do. One who gives away what is his own—as Homer ^a says that Glaucus gave to Diomedes

golden arms for bronze,
An hundred beeves' worth for the worth of nine—

cannot be said to suffer injustice ; for giving rests with oneself, suffering injustice does not—there has to be another person who acts unjustly.

ARISTOTLE

8 δεῖ ὑπάρχειν. περὶ μὲν οὖν τοῦ ἀδικεῖσθαι, ὅτι
οὐχ ἐκούσιον, δηλόν.

Ἔτι δ' ὦν προειλόμεθα δύο ἔστιν εἰπεῖν, πότερόν 15
ποτ' ἀδικεῖ ὁ νείμας παρὰ τὴν ἀξίαν τὸ πλεῖον ἢ
9 ὁ ἔχων, καὶ εἰ ἔστιν αὐτὸν αὐτὸν ἀδικεῖν. εἰ γὰρ
ἐνδέχεται τὸ πρότερον λεχθὲν καὶ ὁ διανεμὼν
ἀδικεῖ ἀλλ' οὐχ ὁ ἔχων τὸ πλεόν, εἴ τις πλεόν
ἐτέρῳ ἢ αὐτῷ νέμει εἰδῶς καὶ ἐκῶν, οὗτος αὐτὸς
αὐτὸν ἀδικεῖ· ὅπερ δοκοῦσιν οἱ μέτριοι ποιεῖν, ὁ 20
γὰρ ἐπιεικὴς ἐλαττωτικός ἐστιν. ἢ οὐδὲ τοῦτο
ἀπλοῦν; ἐτέρου γὰρ ἀγαθοῦ, εἰ ἔτυχεν, ἐπλεονέκτει,
οἶον δόξης ἢ τοῦ ἀπλῶς καλοῦ. ἔτι λύεται καὶ
κατὰ τὸν διορισμὸν τοῦ ἀδικεῖν· οὐθὲν γὰρ παρὰ
τὴν αὐτοῦ πάσχει βούλησιν, ὥστε οὐκ ἀδικεῖται
διὰ γε τοῦτο, ἀλλ' εἴπερ, βλάπτεται μόνον. 25
10 φανερόν δὲ ὅτι¹ καὶ ὁ διανεμὼν ἀδικεῖ, ἀλλ' οὐχ
ὁ τὸ πλεόν ἔχων ἀεὶ². οὐ γὰρ ᾧ τὸ ἄδικον ὑπάρχει
ἀδικεῖ, ἀλλ' ᾧ τὸ ἐκόντα τοῦτο ποιεῖν· τοῦτο δ'
ὅθεν ἡ ἀρχὴ τῆς πράξεως, ἢ ἐστιν ἐν τῷ διανεμόντι
11 ἀλλ' οὐκ ἐν τῷ λαμβάνοντι. ἔτι ἐπεὶ πολλαχῶς

¹ καὶ ὅτι ΓΜ^b.

² ἀεὶ (ἀδικεῖ Κ^b) in proximam sententiam transponendum Richards.

8 It is clear then that it is not possible to suffer injustice voluntarily.

There still remain two of the questions that we proposed to discuss : (1) Is it ever he who gives the unduly large share, or is it always he who receives it, that is guilty of the injustice ? and (2) Can one act unjustly towards oneself ?

9 If the former alternative is possible, that is, if it may be the giver and not the receiver of too large a share who acts unjustly, then when a man knowingly and voluntarily assigns a larger share to another than to himself—as modest people are thought to do, for an equitable man is apt to take less than his due—this is a case of acting unjustly towards oneself. But perhaps this also requires qualification. For the man who gave himself the smaller share may possibly have got a larger share of some other good thing, for instance glory, or intrinsic moral nobility. Also the inference may be refuted by referring to our definition of acting unjustly : in the case supposed, the distributor has nothing done to him against his wish ; therefore he does not suffer injustice merely because he gets the smaller share : at most he only suffers damage.

Can a man wrong himself?

10 And it is clear that the giver as well as the receiver of an undue share may be acting unjustly, and that the receiver is not doing so in all cases. For the charge of injustice attaches, not to a man of whom it can be said that he does what is unjust, but to one of whom it can be said that he does this voluntarily, that is to say one from whom the action originates ; and the origin of the act in this case lies in the giver and not in the receiver of the share.

11 Again, ' to do a thing ' has more than one meaning.

ARISTOTLE

- τὸ ποιεῖν λέγεται, καὶ ἔστιν ὡς τὰ ἄψυχα κτείνειν ³⁰
καὶ ἡ χεὶρ καὶ ὁ οἰκέτης ἐπιτάξαντος, οὐκ ἀδικεῖ
12 μὲν, ποιεῖ δὲ τὰ ἄδικα. ἔτι εἰ μὲν ἀγνοῶν ἔκρινεν,
οὐκ ἀδικεῖ κατὰ τὸ νομικὸν δίκαιον οὐδ' ἄδικος ἡ
κρίσις ἐστίν (ἔστι δ' ὡς ἄδικος), ἕτερον γὰρ τὸ
νομικὸν δίκαιον καὶ τὸ πρῶτον· εἰ δὲ γινώσκων
ἔκρινεν ἀδίκως, πλεονεκτεῖ καὶ αὐτὸς ἢ χάριτος ἢ ¹¹³⁷
13 τιμωρίας. ὥσπερ οὖν κἂν εἴ τις μερίσαιο τοῦ
ἀδικήματος, καὶ ὁ διὰ ταῦτα κρίνας ἀδίκως πλεόν
ἔχει· καὶ γὰρ ἐπ' ἐκείνων¹ ὁ τὸν ἀγρὸν κρίνας οὐκ
ἀγρὸν ἀλλ' ἀργύριον ἔλαβεν.
14 Οἱ δ' ἀνθρώποι ἐφ' ἑαυτοῖς οἴονται εἶναι τὸ ⁵
ἀδικεῖν, διὸ καὶ τὸ δίκαιον εἶναι ῥάδιον. τὸ δ'
οὐκ ἔστιν· συγγενέσθαι μὲν γὰρ τῇ τοῦ γείτονος
καὶ πατάξαι τὸν πλησίον καὶ δοῦναι τῇ χειρὶ τὸ
ἀργύριον ῥάδιον καὶ ἐπ' αὐτοῖς, ἀλλὰ τὸ ὠδὶ
ἔχοντας ταῦτα ποιεῖν οὔτε ῥάδιον οὔτ' ἐπ' αὐτοῖς.
15 ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὸ γινῶναι τὰ δίκαια καὶ τὰ ἄδικα ¹⁰
οὐδὲν οἴονται σοφὸν εἶναι, ὅτι περὶ ὧν οἱ νόμοι
λέγουσιν οὐ χαλεπὸν ξυνιέναι. ἀλλ' οὐ ταῦτ' ἐστὶ
τὰ δίκαια ἀλλ' ἢ κατὰ συμβεβηκός· ἀλλὰ πῶς
πραττόμενα καὶ πῶς νεμόμενα δίκαια; τοῦτο δὴ²
πλεόν ἔργον ἢ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ εἰδέναι· ἐπεὶ κακεῖ

¹ ἐκείνῳ K^b.

² πῶς . . . πῶς . . . δὴ Bywater : πῶς . . . πῶς . . . δὲ

^a It is not clear whether this is meant to apply, in certain circumstances, to the distributor, or to the receiver, or to both.

In a certain sense a murder is done by the inanimate instrument, or by the murderer's hand, or by a slave acting under orders. But though these do what is unjust, they cannot be said to act 'unjustly.'^a

- 12 Again, although if a judge has given an unfair judgement in ignorance, he is not guilty of injustice, nor is the judgement unjust, in the legal sense of justice (though the judgement is unjust in one sense), for legal justice is different from justice in the primary sense, yet if he knowingly gives an unjust judgement, he is himself taking more than
- 13 his share, either of favour or of vengeance. Hence a judge who gives an unjust judgement for these motives takes more than his due just as much as if he shared the proceeds of the injustice; for even in that case the judge who unjustly assigns a piece of land does not receive land but money.

- 14 Men think that it is in their power to act unjustly, and therefore that it is easy to be just. But really this is not so. It is easy to lie with one's neighbour's wife or strike a bystander or slip some money into a man's hand, and it is in one's power to do these things or not; but to do them as a result of a certain disposition of mind is not easy, and is
- 15 not in one's power. Similarly men suppose it requires no special wisdom to know what is just and what is unjust, because it is not difficult to understand the pronouncements of the law. But the actions prescribed by law are only accidentally just actions. *How* an action must be performed, *how* a distribution must be made to be a just action or a just distribution—to know this is a harder task than to know what medical treatment will produce health. Even in medicine, though it is easy to know what

Is being
just in our
power?

μέλι καὶ οἶνον καὶ ἐλλέβορον καὶ καῦσιν καὶ τομὴν 15
 εἰδέναι ῥάδιον, ἀλλὰ πῶς δεῖ νεῖμαι πρὸς ὑγίειαν
 καὶ τίνι καὶ πότε, τοσοῦτον ἔργον ὅσον ἰατρὸν
 16 εἶναι. δι' αὐτὸ δὲ τοῦτο καὶ τοῦ δικαίου οἴονται
 εἶναι οὐθὲν ἥττον τὸ ἀδικεῖν, ὅτι οὐχ¹ ἥττον ὁ
 δίκαιος ἀλλὰ καὶ μᾶλλον δύναιτ' ἂν ἕκαστον πρᾶξαι
 τούτων· καὶ γὰρ συγγενέσθαι γυναικὶ καὶ πατάξαι, 20
 καὶ ὁ ἀνδρεῖος τὴν ἀσπίδα ἀφεῖναι καὶ στραφεῖς
 ἐφ' ὅποτεραοῦν τρέχειν. ἀλλὰ τὸ δειλαίνειν καὶ
 τὸ ἀδικεῖν οὐ τὸ ταῦτα ποιεῖν ἐστί (πλήν κατὰ
 συμβεβηκός), ἀλλὰ τὸ ὠδὶ ἔχοντα ταῦτα ποιεῖν,
 ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ ἰατρεύειν καὶ τὸ ὑγιάζειν οὐ τὸ
 τέμνειν ἢ μὴ τέμνειν ἢ φαρμακεύειν ἢ μὴ φαρμα- 25
 κεύειν ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ τὸ ὠδί.

17 Ἔστι δὲ τὰ δίκαια ἐν τούτοις οἷς μέτεστι τῶν
 ἀπλῶς ἀγαθῶν, ἔχουσι δ' ὑπερβολὴν ἐν τούτοις
 καὶ ἔλλειψιν. τοῖς μὲν γὰρ οὐκ ἔστιν ὑπερβολὴ
 αὐτῶν, οἷον ἴσως τοῖς θεοῖς· τοῖς δ' οὐθὲν μόριον
 ὠφέλιμον, τοῖς ἀνιάτως κακοῖς, ἀλλὰ πάντα
 βλάπτει· τοῖς δὲ μέχρι τοῦ· τοῦτο δ'² ἀνθρώπινόν 30
 ἐστίν.

x Περὶ δὲ ἐπιεικείας καὶ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς, πῶς ἔχει
 ἡ μὲν ἐπιεικεία πρὸς δικαιοσύνην τὸ δ' ἐπιεικὲς
 πρὸς τὸ δίκαιον, ἐχόμενόν ἐστιν εἰπεῖν. οὔτε
 γὰρ ὥς ταῦτόν ἀπλῶς οὔθ' ὥς ἕτερον τῷ γένει
 φαίνεται σκοποῦμένοις· καὶ ὅτ' ἐπὶ μὲν τὸ ἐπιεικὲς 35
 ἐπαινοῦμεν καὶ ἄνδρα τὸν τοιοῦτον, ὥστε καὶ ἐπὶ

¹ οὐχ K^b: οὐθὲν.

² τοῦτο δ' Γ: διὰ τοῦτ' (διὸ τοῦτ' Zwinger).

^a ἐπιεικὲς in some contexts means 'suitable' or 'reasonable.'

honey, wine and hellebore, cautery and surgery are, to know how and to whom and when to apply them so as to effect a cure is no less an undertaking than
 16 to be a physician. And for the same reason men think that the just man will act unjustly no less than justly, because the just man is not less but rather more able than another to do any particular unjust thing : for example, he *can* lie with a woman, or strike a blow, and a brave man *can* throw away his shield, and *can* wheel to the right or left and run away. But to be a coward and to be guilty of injustice consists not in doing these things (except accidentally), but in doing them from a certain disposition of mind ; just as to be a physician and cure one's patients is not a matter of employing or not employing surgery or drugs, but of doing so in a certain manner.

17 Claims of justice exist between persons who share in things generally speaking good, and who can have too large a share or too small a share of them. There are persons who cannot have too large a share of these goods : doubtless, for example, the gods. And there are those who can derive no benefit from any share of them : namely, the incurably vicious ; to them all the things generally good are harmful. But for others they are beneficial within limits ; and this is the case with ordinary mortals.

x We have next to speak of Equity and the equitable, *Equity*. and of their relation to Justice and to what is just respectively. For upon examination it appears that Justice and Equity are neither absolutely identical nor generically different. Sometimes, it is true, we praise equity and the equitable man, so much so that we even apply the word ' equitable ' ^a as a term

ARISTOTLE

τὰ ἄλλα ἐπαινοῦντες μεταφέρομεν ἀντὶ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ, ^{1137 b}
 τὸ ἐπιεικέστερον ὅτι βέλτιον δηλοῦντες· ὅτε δὲ
 τῷ λόγῳ ἀκολουθοῦσι φαίνεται ἄτοπον εἰ τὸ
 ἐπιεικὲς παρὰ τὸ δίκαιόν τι ὃν ἐπαινετόν ἐστιν·
 ἢ γὰρ τὸ δίκαιον οὐ σπουδαῖον, ἢ τὸ ἐπιεικὲς [οὐ
 δίκαιον],¹ εἰ ἄλλο· ἢ εἰ ἄμφω σπουδαῖα, ταῦτόν ⁵
² ἐστίν. ἢ μὲν οὖν ἀπορία σχεδὸν συμβαίνει διὰ
 ταῦτα περὶ τὸ ἐπιεικὲς, ἔχει δ' ἅπαντα τρόπον τινὰ
 ὀρθῶς καὶ οὐθὲν ὑπεναντίον ἑαυτοῖς· τό τε γὰρ
 ἐπιεικὲς δικαίου τινὸς ὃν βέλτιόν ἐστι δίκαιον,
 καὶ οὐχ ὡς ἄλλο τι γένος ὃν βέλτιόν ἐστι τοῦ
 δικαίου. ταῦτόν ἄρα δίκαιον καὶ ἐπιεικὲς, καὶ ¹⁰
 ἀμφοῖν σπουδαῖον ὄντων κρεῖττον τὸ ἐπιεικὲς.
³ ποιεῖ δὲ τὴν ἀπορίαν ὅτι τὸ ἐπιεικὲς δίκαιον μὲν
 ἐστίν, οὐ τὸ κατὰ νόμον δέ, ἀλλ' ἐπανόρθωμα
⁴ νομίμου δικαίου. αἴτιον δ' ὅτι ὁ μὲν νόμος
 καθόλου πᾶς, περὶ ἐνίων δ' οὐχ οἷόν τε ὀρθῶς
 εἰπεῖν καθόλου. ἐν οἷς οὖν ἀνάγκη μὲν εἰπεῖν ¹⁵
 καθόλου, μὴ οἷόν τε δὲ ὀρθῶς, τὸ ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πλεόν
 λαμβάνει ὁ νόμος, οὐκ ἄγνοων τὸ ἀμαρτανόμενον.
 καὶ ἔστιν οὐδὲν ἥττον ὀρθός². τὸ γὰρ ἀμάρτημα
 οὐκ ἐν τῷ νόμῳ οὐδ' ἐν τῷ νομοθέτῃ ἀλλ' ἐν τῇ
 φύσει τοῦ πράγματός ἐστιν· εὐθὺς γὰρ τοιαύτη .
⁵ ἢ τῶν πρακτῶν ὕλη ἐστίν. ὅταν οὖν λέγῃ μὲν ²⁰
 ὁ νόμος καθόλου, συμβῇ δ' ἐπὶ τούτου παρὰ τὸ
 καθόλου, τότε ὀρθῶς ἔχει, ἢ παραλείπει ὁ νομο-
 θέτης καὶ ἡμαρτεν ἀπλῶς εἰπών, ἐπανορθοῦν τὸ

¹ [οὐ δίκαιον] om. Γ.² ὀρθός Γ: ὀρθῶς.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. x. 1-5

of approval to other things besides what is just, and use it as the equivalent of 'good,' denoting by 'more equitable' merely that which is 'better.' Yet at other times, when we think the matter out, it seems strange that the equitable should be praiseworthy if it is something other than the just. If they are different, either the just or the equitable is not good; if both are good, they are the same thing.

- 2 These then are the considerations, more or less, from which the difficulty as to the equitable arises. Yet they are all in a manner correct, and not really inconsistent. For equity, while superior to one sort of justice, is itself just: it is not superior to justice as being generically different from it. Justice and equity are therefore the same thing, and both are good, though equity is the better.
- 3 The source of the difficulty is that equity, though just, is not legal justice, but a rectification of legal
- 4 justice. The reason for this is that law is always a general statement, yet there are cases which it is not possible to cover in a general statement. In matters therefore where, while it is necessary to speak in general terms, it is not possible to do so correctly, the law takes into consideration the majority of cases, although it is not unaware of the error this involves. And this does not make it a wrong law; for the error is not in the law nor in the lawgiver, but in the nature of the case: the material of conduct is essentially irregular. When therefore the law lays down a general rule, and thereafter a case arises which is an exception to the rule, it is then right, where the lawgiver's pronouncement because of its absoluteness is defective and erroneous, to

ARISTOTLE

ἐλλειφθέν, ὃ καὶ ὁ νομοθέτης αὐτὸς οὕτως ἂν εἴποι¹
 6 ἐκεῖ² παρών, καὶ εἰ ᾗδαι, ἐνομοθέτησεν ἄν.³ διὸ
 δίκαιον μὲν ἐστὶ, καὶ βέλτιόν τινος δικαίου, οὐ²⁵
 τοῦ ἀπλῶς δὲ ἀλλὰ τοῦ διὰ τὸ ἀπλῶς ἁμαρτή-
 ματος. καὶ ἔστιν αὕτη ἡ φύσις ἡ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς,
 ἐπανόρθωμα νόμου ᾗ ἐλλείπει διὰ τὸ καθόλου.
 τοῦτο γὰρ αἷτιον καὶ τοῦ μὴ πάντα κατὰ νόμον
 εἶναι, ὅτι περὶ ἐνίων ἀδύνατον θέσθαι νόμον, ὥστε
 7 ψηφίσματος δεῖ. τοῦ γὰρ ἀορίστου ἀόριστος
 καὶ ὁ κανὼν ἐστίν, ὥσπερ καὶ τῆς Λεσβίας³⁰
 οἰκοδομῆς⁴ ὁ μολίβδινος κανὼν· πρὸς γὰρ τὸ
 σχῆμα τοῦ λίθου μετακινεῖται καὶ οὐ μένει ὁ
 8 κανὼν, καὶ τὸ ψήφισμα πρὸς τὰ πράγματα. τί
 μὲν οὖν ἐστὶ τὸ ἐπιεικές, καὶ ὅτι δίκαιον, καὶ
 τινὸς⁵ βέλτιον δικαίου, δηλον. φανερόν δ' ἐκ τού-
 του καὶ ὁ ἐπιεικὴς τίς ἐστίν· ὁ γὰρ τῶν τοιούτων³⁵
 προαιρετικὸς καὶ πρακτικὸς, καὶ ὁ μὴ ἀκριβο-^{1138 a}
 δίκαιος ἐπὶ τὸ χεῖρον, ἀλλ' ἐλαττωτικὸς καίπερ
 ἔχων τὸν νόμον βοηθόν, ἐπιεικὴς ἐστι, καὶ ἡ
 ἕξις αὕτη ἐπιείκεια, δικαιοσύνη τις οὕσα καὶ οὐχ
 ἑτέρα τις ἕξις.
 xi Πότερον δ' ἐνδέχεται ἑαυτὸν ἀδικεῖν ἢ οὐ,
 φανερόν ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων. τὰ μὲν γὰρ ἐστὶ⁵
 τῶν δικαίων τὰ κατὰ πᾶσαν ἀρετὴν ὑπὸ τοῦ

¹ ἂν εἴποι : εἶπεν K^b.² ἐκεῖ om. K^b.³ ἄν om. K^b.⁴ οἰκοδομίας K^b, οἰκοδομήσεως ? ed.⁵ τινὸς Γ : τίνος.

rectify the defect by deciding as the lawgiver would himself decide if he were present on the occasion, and would have enacted if he had been cognizant
6 of the case in question. Hence, while the equitable is just, and is superior to one sort of justice, it is not superior to absolute justice, but only to the error due to its absolute statement. This is the essential nature of the equitable: it is a rectification of law where law is defective because of its generality. In fact this is the reason why things are not all determined by law: it is because there are some cases for which it is impossible to lay down a law, so that
7 a special ordinance becomes necessary. For what is itself indefinite can only be measured by an indefinite standard, like the leaden rule^a used by Lesbian builders; just as that rule is not rigid but can be bent to the shape of the stone, so a special ordinance is made to fit the circumstances of the case.

8 It is now plain what the equitable is, and that it is just, and that it is superior to one sort of justice. And from this it is clear what the equitable man is: he is one who by choice and habit does what is equitable, and who does not stand on his rights unduly, but is content to receive a smaller share although he has the law on his side. And the disposition described is Equity; it is a special kind of Justice, not a different quality altogether.

xi The foregoing discussion has indicated the answer to the question, Is it possible or not for a man to commit injustice against himself? (1) One class of just actions consists of those acts, in accordance with

A man cannot wrong himself, nor suffer wrong voluntarily (see c. ix.).

^a Explained either as used in building with polygonal stones (but this was not peculiar to Lesbos), or in making the Lesbian form of moulding, which had a double curve.

ARISTOTLE

- νόμου τεταγμένα· οἷον οὐ κελεύει ἀποκτινύναι
 ἑαυτὸν ὁ νόμος (ἃ δὲ μὴ κελεύει, ἀπαγορεύει).
 2 ἔτι ὅταν παρὰ τὸν νόμον βλάβη (μὴ ἀντιβλάβη)
 ἑκὼν, ἀδικεῖ (ἑκὼν δὲ ὁ εἰδὼς καὶ ὃν καὶ ᾧ). ὁ
 δὲ δι' ὀργὴν ἑαυτὸν σφάττων ἑκὼν τοῦτο δρᾷ 10
 3 (παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν¹ λόγον²), ὁ οὐκ ἔῃ ὁ νόμος. ἀδικεῖ
 ἄρα· ἀλλὰ τίνα; ἢ τὴν πόλιν, αὐτὸν δ' οὐ; ἑκὼν
 γὰρ πάσχει, ἀδικεῖται δ' οὐθὲς ἑκὼν. διὸ καὶ
 ἢ πόλις ζημιοῖ, καὶ τις ἀτιμία πρόσσεστι τῷ
 ἑαυτὸν διαφθείραντι ὡς τὴν πόλιν ἀδικοῦντι.
 4 ἔτι καθ' ὃ ἄδικος ὁ μόνον³ ἀδικῶν καὶ μὴ ὅλως 15
 φαῦλος, οὐκ ἔστιν ἀδικῆσαι ἑαυτόν. (τοῦτο γὰρ
 ἄλλο ἐκείνου· ἔστι γὰρ πῶς ὁ ἄδικος οὕτω πονηρὸς
 ὥσπερ ὁ δειλός, οὐχ ὡς ὅλην ἔχων τὴν πονηρίαν,
 ὥστ' οὐδὲ κατὰ ταύτην ἀδικεῖ.) ἅμα γὰρ ἂν τῷ
 αὐτῷ εἴη ἀφρηῆσθαι καὶ προσκείσθαι τὸ αὐτό·
 τοῦτο δὲ ἀδύνατον, ἀλλ' αἰεὶ ἐν πλείοσιν ἀνάγκη 20
 5 εἶναι τὸ δίκαιον καὶ τὸ ἄδικον. ἔτι δὲ ἐκούσιόν
 τε καὶ ἐκ προαιρέσεως καὶ πρότερον (ὁ γὰρ διότι
 ἔπαθε, καὶ τὸ αὐτὸ ἀντιποιῶν, οὐ δοκεῖ ἀδικεῖν).
 αὐτὸς δ' ἑαυτόν, τὰ αὐτὰ ἅμα καὶ πάσχει καὶ

¹ αὐτὸν K^b.² νόμον ΓΜ^b.³ μόνον ὁ Lambinus.

^a The argument seems to be, that suicide does not prove the possibility of a man's committing 'injustice,' in the wider sense of any illegal injury, against himself. Suicide is an act of injustice in this sense, since it is the voluntary infliction of bodily harm not in retaliation and therefore contrary to law; but it is an offence not against oneself but against the State, since it is punished as such.

^b Or perhaps, 'and any form of homicide that it does not sanction' (pronounce justifiable).

^c i.e., the principle of retaliation.

^d At Athens a suicide's hand was buried apart from the body; Aeschines, *Ctes.* 24.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, V. xi. 1-5

- any virtue, which are ordained by law.^a For instance, the law does not sanction suicide (and what^b it does
2 not expressly sanction, it forbids). Further, when a man voluntarily (which means with knowledge of the person affected and the instrument employed) does an injury (not in retaliation) that is against the law, he commits injustice. But he who kills himself in a fit of passion, voluntarily does an injury (against the right principle^c) which the law does not allow.
3 Therefore the suicide commits injustice ; but against whom ? It seems to be against the state rather than against himself ; for he suffers voluntarily, and nobody suffers injustice voluntarily. This is why the state exacts a penalty ; suicide is punished by certain marks of dishonour,^d as being an offence against the state.
- 4 (2) Moreover, it is not possible to act unjustly towards oneself in the sense in which a man is unjust who is a doer of injustice only and not universally wicked. (This case is distinct from the former, because Injustice in one sense is a special form of wickedness, like Cowardice, and does not imply universal wickedness ; hence it is necessary further to show that a man cannot commit injustice against himself in this sense either.) For (a) if it were, it would be possible for the same thing to have been taken away from and added to the same thing at the same time. But this is impossible : justice and injustice always necessarily imply more than one
5 person. Again (b) an act of injustice must be voluntary and done from choice, and also unprovoked ; we do not think that a man acts unjustly if having suffered he retaliates, and gives what he got. But when a man injures himself, he both does and suffers

ARISTOTLE

- 6 ποιεῖ. ἔτι εἴη ἂν ἐκόντα ἀδικεῖσθαι. πρὸς δὲ
τούτοις, ἄνευ τῶν κατὰ μέρος ἀδικημάτων οὐθεὶς ²⁵
ἀδικεῖ, μοιχεύει, δ' οὐδεὶς τὴν ἑαυτοῦ οὐδὲ τοιχ-
ωρυχεῖ τὸν ἑαυτοῦ τοῖχον οὐδὲ κλέπτει τὰ
ἑαυτοῦ. ὅλως δὲ λύεται τὸ ἑαυτὸν ἀδικεῖν κατὰ
τὸν διορισμὸν τὸν περὶ τοῦ ἐκουσίως ἀδικεῖσθαι.
- 7 (Φανερόν δὲ καὶ ὅτι ἄμφω μὲν φαῦλα, καὶ τὸ
ἀδικεῖσθαι καὶ τὸ ἀδικεῖν—τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἔλαττον τὸ
δὲ πλεόν ἔχειν ἐστὶ τοῦ μέσου καὶ¹ ὥσπερ ὑγιεινὸν ³⁰
μὲν ἐν ἰατρικῇ, εὐεκτικὸν δὲ ἐν γυμναστικῇ—
ἀλλ' ὅμως χείρον τὸ ἀδικεῖν· τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἀδικεῖν
μετὰ κακίας καὶ ψεκτόν, καὶ κακίας ἢ τῆς τελείας
καὶ ἀπλῶς ἢ ἐγγύς—οὐ γὰρ ἅπαν τὸ ἐκούσιον
μετὰ κακίας—, τὸ δ' ἀδικεῖσθαι ἄνευ κακίας² καὶ ³⁵
8 ἀδικίας. καθ' αὐτὸ μὲν οὖν τὸ ἀδικεῖσθαι ἡττον
φαῦλον, κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς δ' οὐθὲν κωλύει μείζον ^{1138 b}
εἶναι κακόν. ἀλλ' οὐδὲν μέλει τῇ τέχνῃ, ἀλλὰ
πλευρίτιν λέγει μείζω νόσον προσπταίσματος,
καίτοι γένοιτ' ἂν ποτε θάτερον κατὰ συμβεβηκός,
εἰ προσπταίσαντα διὰ τὸ πεσεῖν συμβαίη ὑπὸ ⁵
τῶν πολεμίων ληφθῆναι καὶ ἀποθανεῖν.)
- 9 Κατὰ μεταφορὰν δὲ καὶ ὁμοιότητά ἐστιν οὐκ
αὐτῷ πρὸς αὐτὸν δίκαιον ἀλλὰ τῶν αὐτοῦ τισίν,

¹ καὶ . . . γυμναστικῇ: v. infra adn. ^a.

² κακίας Rassow: ἀδικίας.

^a This clause has no grammatical connexion with the rest of the sentence: Ramsauer brackets it, Rassow supplies before it τὸ δὲ δικαιοπραγεῖν μέσον, 'whereas just conduct is a mean.'

the same thing at the same time. Again (c) if a man could act unjustly towards himself, it would be possible
6 to suffer injustice voluntarily. Furthermore (d) no one is guilty of injustice without committing some particular unjust act; but a man cannot commit adultery with his own wife, or burglary on his own premises, or theft of his own property.

(3) And generally, the question, Can a man act unjustly towards himself? is solved by our decision upon the question, Can a man suffer injustice voluntarily?

7 (It is further manifest that, though both to suffer and to do injustice are evils—for the former is to have less and the latter to have more than the mean, corresponding ^a to what is health-giving in medicine and conducive to fitness in athletic training—nevertheless to do injustice is the worse evil, for it is reprehensible, implying vice in the agent, and vice utter and absolute—or nearly so, for it is true that not every unjust act voluntarily committed implies vice—, whereas to suffer injustice does not necessarily
8 imply vice or injustice in the victim. Thus in itself to suffer injustice is the lesser evil, though accidentally it may be the greater. With this however science is not concerned; science pronounces pleurisy a more serious disorder than a sprain, in spite of the fact that in certain circumstances a sprain may be accidentally worse than pleurisy, as for instance if it should happen that owing to a sprain you fell and in consequence of falling were taken by the enemy and killed.)

9 In a metaphorical and analogical sense however there is such a thing as justice, not towards oneself but between different parts of one's nature; not,

ARISTOTLE

οὐ πᾶν δὲ δίκαιον ἀλλὰ τὸ δεσποτικὸν ἢ τὸ οἰκονομικόν. ἐν τούτοις γὰρ τοῖς λόγοις διέστηκε τὸ λόγον ἔχον μέρος τῆς ψυχῆς πρὸς τὸ ἄλογον· εἰς ᾧ δὴ βλέπουσι καὶ δοκεῖ εἶναι ἀδικία πρὸς ¹⁰ αὐτόν, ὅτι [ἐν]¹ τούτοις ἔστι πάσχειν τι *παρὰ τὰς ἑαυτῶν ὀρέξεις· ὥσπερ οὖν ἄρχοντι καὶ ἀρχομένῳ εἶναι πρὸς ἀλληλα δίκαιόν τι καὶ τούτοις.

- 10 Περὶ μὲν οὖν δικαιοσύνης καὶ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν ἠθικῶν ἀρετῶν διωρίσθω τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον.

¹ Jackson.

it is true, justice in the full sense of the term, but such justice as subsists between master and slave, or between the head of a household and his wife and children. For in the discourses on this question ^a a distinction is set up between the rational and irrational parts of the soul; and this distinction leads people to suppose that there is such a thing as injustice towards oneself, because these parts of the self may be thwarted in their respective desires, so that there may be a sort of justice between them, such as exists between ruler and subject.

- 10 So much may be said in description of Justice and of the other Moral Virtues.

^a Plato's *Republic* and the writings of Plato's followers:
cf. I. xiii. 9.

Z

i Ἐπεὶ δὲ τυγχάνομεν πρότερον εἰρηκότες ὅτι
 δεῖ τὸ μέσον αἰρεῖσθαι καὶ¹ μὴ τὴν ὑπερβολὴν
 μηδὲ τὴν ἑλλειψιν, τὸ δὲ μέσον ἐστὶν ὡς ὁ λόγος 20
 ὁ ὀρθὸς λέγει, τοῦτο διέλωμεν.

Ἐν πάσαις γὰρ ταῖς εἰρημέναις ἔξεσι, καθάπερ
 καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων, ἐστὶ τις σκοπὸς πρὸς ὃν
 ἀποβλέπων ὁ τὸν λόγον ἔχων ἐπιτείνει καὶ ἀνίησιν,
 καὶ τις ἐστὶν ὁρος τῶν μεσοτήτων, ἃς μεταξύ
 φάμεν εἶναι τῆς ὑπερβολῆς καὶ τῆς ἑλλείψεως,
 2 οὕσας κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον. ἐστὶ δὲ τὸ μὲν 25
 εἰπεῖν οὕτως ἀληθὲς μὲν, οὐθὲν δὲ σαφές. καὶ
 γὰρ ἐν ταῖς ἄλλαις ἐπιμελείαις, περὶ ὅσας ἐστὶν
 ἐπιστήμη, τοῦτ' ἀληθὲς μὲν εἰπεῖν, ὅτι οὐτε
 πλείω οὐτε ἐλάττω δεῖ πονεῖν οὐδὲ ῥαθυμεῖν,
 ἀλλὰ τὰ μέσα καὶ ὡς ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος· τοῦτο δὲ
 μόνον ἔχων ἂν τις οὐθὲν ἂν εἰδείῃ πλέον, οἷον 30
 ποῖα δεῖ προσφέρεσθαι πρὸς τὸ σῶμα, εἴ τις εἴπειεν
 ὅτι ὅσα ἡ ἱατρικὴ κελεύει καὶ ὡς ὁ ταύτην ἔχων.
 3 διὸ δεῖ καὶ περὶ τὰς τῆς ψυχῆς ἔξεις μὴ μόνον

¹ καὶ om. K^bΓ.

^a Cf. II. vi., esp. § 15.

^b The words denote tightening and loosening a bowstring, and also tuning a lyre. The former image is suggested by the preceding words, but the latter perhaps is a better
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BOOK VI

i We have already said ^a that it is right to choose the mean and to avoid excess and deficiency, and that the mean is prescribed by the right principle. Let us now analyse the latter notion.

Bk. VI. The Intellectual Virtues.
c. i. The Right Principle, which determines the Mean for Moral Virtue, is now to be defined.

In the case of each of the moral qualities or dispositions that have been discussed, as with all the other virtues also, there is a certain mark to aim at, on which the man who knows the principle involved fixes his gaze, and increases or relaxes the tension accordingly ; there is a certain standard determining those modes of observing the mean which we define as lying between excess and defect, being in conformity with the right principle. This bare statement however, although true, is not at all enlightening. In all departments of human endeavour that have been reduced to a science, it is true to say that effort ought to be exerted and relaxed neither too much nor too little, but to the medium amount, and as the right principle decides. Yet a person knowing this truth will be no wiser than before : for example, he will not know what medicines to take merely from being told to take everything that medical science or a medical expert would prescribe.

3 Hence with respect to the qualities of the soul also, metaphor for that avoidance of the too much and the too little which, according to Aristotle, constitutes right conduct.

ARISTOTLE

ἀληθῶς¹ εἶναι τοῦτ' εἰρημένον, ἀλλὰ καὶ διωρισμένον τίς² ἐστὶν ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος καὶ τούτου τίς ὀρος.

- 4 Τὰς δὴ τῆς ψυχῆς ἀρετὰς διελόμενοι τὰς μὲν ³⁵
εἶναι τοῦ ἥθους ἔφαμεν τὰς δὲ τῆς διανοίας. 1139 ^a
περὶ μὲν οὖν τῶν ἠθικῶν διεληλύθαμεν, περὶ δὲ
τῶν λοιπῶν, περὶ ψυχῆς πρῶτον εἰπόντες, λέγωμεν
5 οὕτως. πρότερον μὲν οὖν ἐλέχθη δὴ εἶναι μέρη
τῆς ψυχῆς, τό τε λόγον ἔχον καὶ τὸ ἄλογον· νῦν ⁵
δὲ περὶ τοῦ λόγον ἔχοντος τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον
διαιρετέον, καὶ ὑποκείσθω δύο τὰ λόγον ἔχοντα,
ἐν μὲν ᾧ θεωροῦμεν τὰ τοιαῦτα τῶν ὄντων ὅσων
αἱ ἀρχαὶ μὴ ἐνδέχονται ἄλλως ἔχειν, ἐν δὲ ᾧ τὰ
ἐνδεχόμενα· πρὸς γὰρ τὰ τῷ γένει ἕτερα καὶ τῶν
τῆς ψυχῆς μορίων ἕτερον τῷ γένει τὸ πρὸς ἐκά- 10
τερον πεφυκός, εἶπερ καθ' ὁμοιότητά τινα καὶ οἷ-
6 κειότητα ἢ γνώσις ὑπάρχει αὐτοῖς. λεγέσθω δὲ
τούτων τὸ μὲν ἐπιστημονικὸν τὸ δὲ λογιστικόν·
τὸ γὰρ βουλευέσθαι καὶ λογίζεσθαι ταυτόν, οὐθεὶς
δὲ βουλεύεται περὶ τῶν μὴ ἐνδεχομένων ἄλλως
ἔχειν, ὥστε τὸ λογιστικόν ἐστὶν ἐν τι μέρος τοῦ ¹⁵
7 λόγον ἔχοντος. ληπτέον ἄρ' ἐκατέρου τούτων
τίς ἢ βελτίστη ἔξις· αὕτη γὰρ ἀρετὴ ἐκατέρου.
ii ἢ δ' ἀρετὴ πρὸς τὸ ἔργον τὸ οἰκεῖον. τρία δ'
ἐστὶν ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ τὰ κύρια πράξεως καὶ ἀληθείας,

¹ ἀληθῶς K^bΓ: ἀληθές.

² τίς K^b: τίς τ'.

^a Book VI. thus purports to explain further the definition of Moral Virtue (π. vi. 15), while at the same time (§ 4) continuing the analysis of the definition of Happiness (i. vii. 15) by examining the Intellectual Virtues.

^b i. xiii. 9.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. i. 3—ii. 1

it is not enough merely to have established the truth of the above formula ; we also have to define exactly what the right principle is, and what is the standard that determines it.^a

4 Now we have divided the Virtues of the Soul into two groups, the Virtues of the Character and the Virtues of the Intellect. The former, the Moral Virtues, we have already discussed. Our account of the latter must be prefaced by some remarks about psychology.

5 It has been said before^b that the soul has two parts, one rational and the other irrational. Let us now similarly divide the rational part, and let it be assumed that there are two rational faculties, one whereby we contemplate those things whose first principles are invariable, and one whereby we contemplate those things which admit of variation : since, on the assumption that knowledge is based on a likeness or affinity of some sort between subject and object, the parts of the soul adapted to the cognition of objects that are of different kinds must themselves differ in kind. These two rational faculties may be designated the Scientific Faculty and the Calculative Faculty respectively ; since calculation is the same as deliberation, and deliberation is never exercised about things that are invariable, so that the Calculative Faculty is a separate part of the rational half of the soul.

The Intellectual Virtues are those of the two subdivisions of the rational part of the Soul, the Scientific Faculty and the Calculative or Deliberative Faculty.

7 We have therefore to ascertain what disposition of each of these faculties is the best, for that will be the special virtue of each.

But the virtue of a faculty is related to the special function which that faculty performs. Now there are three elements in the soul which control action

ARISTOTLE

2 αἴσθησις νοῦς ὁρεξίς. τούτων δ' ἡ αἴσθησις
οὐδεμιᾶς ἀρχὴ πράξεως· δηλον δὲ τῷ τὰ θηρία 20
αἴσθησιν μὲν ἔχειν, πράξεως δὲ μὴ κοινωνεῖν.—ἔστι
δ' ὅπερ ἐν διανοίᾳ κατάφασις καὶ ἀπόφασις, τοῦτ'
ἐν ὁρέξει διώξις καὶ φυγὴ· ὥστ' ἐπειδὴ ἡ ἡθικὴ
ἀρετὴ ἔξις προαιρετικὴ, ἡ δὲ προαίρεσις ὁρεξίς
βουλευτικὴ, δεῖ διὰ ταῦτα¹ τὸν τε λόγον ἀληθῆ
εἶναι καὶ τὴν ὁρεξιν ὀρθήν, εἴπερ ἡ προαίρεσις 25
σπουδαία, καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ τὸν μὲν φάναι τὴν δὲ
3 διώκειν. αὕτη μὲν οὖν ἡ διάνοια καὶ ἡ ἀλήθεια
πρακτικὴ, τῆς δὲ θεωρητικῆς διανοίας καὶ μὴ
πρακτικῆς μηδὲ ποιητικῆς. τὸ εὖ καὶ κακῶς
τάληθές ἐστι καὶ ψεῦδος· τοῦτο γάρ ἐστι παντὸς
διανοητικοῦ ἔργον, τοῦ δὲ πρακτικοῦ [καὶ]² 30
διανοητικοῦ ἡ ἀλήθεια ὁμολόγως ἔχουσα τῇ
4 ὁρέξει τῇ ὀρθῇ.—πράξεως μὲν οὖν ἀρχὴ προ-
αίρεσις (ὅθεν ἡ κίνησις ἀλλ' οὐχ οὗ ἕνεκα), προ-
αίρέσεως δὲ ὁρεξίς καὶ λόγος ὁ ἕνεκά τινος· διὸ
οὐτ' ἄνευ νοῦ καὶ διανοίας οὐτ' ἄνευ ἡθικῆς ἐστὶν
ἕξεως ἡ προαίρεσις. [εὐπραξία γὰρ καὶ τὸ

¹ διὰ ταῦτα M^b: δὲ ταῦτα μὲν K^b, διὰ μὲν ταῦτα L^b, μὲν διὰ
ταῦτα Γ, διὰ ταῦτα Apelt. ² ed.

^a νοῦς here bears its usual philosophic sense of the intellect, or rational part of the 'soul,' as a whole, whose function is διάνοια, thought in general. In c. vi. it is given a special and restricted meaning, and this in c. xi. is related to the popular use of the word to denote 'good sense' or practical intelligence.

^b πρᾶξις means rational action, conduct. The movements of animals, Aristotle appears to think, are mere reactions to the stimuli of sensation.

^c Greenwood points out that the passage would be clearer if § 2 mid. and § 3, 'Pursuit . . . right desire,' and § 5, 'Thought by itself . . . desire aims,' came lower down, after

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. ii. 1-4

and the attainment of truth : namely, Sensation, Intellect,^a and Desire.

- 2 Of these, Sensation never originates action, as is shown by the fact that animals have sensation but are not capable of action.^b

The function of these Faculties to attain truth. Relation of the Calculative Faculty to Moral Action.

- ^c Pursuit and avoidance in the sphere of Desire correspond to affirmation and denial in the sphere of the Intellect. Hence inasmuch as moral virtue is a disposition of the mind in regard to choice,^d and choice is deliberate desire,^e it follows that, if the choice is to be good, both the principle must be true and the desire right, and that desire must pursue the same things as principle affirms. We are here speaking of practical thinking, and of the attainment of truth in regard to action ; with speculative thought, which is not concerned with action or production, right and wrong functioning consist in the attainment of truth and falsehood respectively. The attainment of truth is indeed the function of every part of the intellect, but that of the practical intelligence is the attainment of truth corresponding to right desire.^f

- 4 Now the cause of action (the efficient, not the final cause) is choice,^g and the cause of choice is desire and reasoning directed to some end. Hence choice necessarily involves both intellect or thought and a certain disposition of character [^h for doing well the verse-quotation in § 6. The earlier part of § 6 is a parenthetical note.

^a II. vi. 15. ^e III. iii. 19.
^f i.e., truth about the means to the attainment of the rightly desired End.

^g Cf. III. ii. 1 note. Here again *προαίρεσις* seems to mean choice of means, not of ends.

^h This clause must be rejected as superfluous and logically unsound : the nature of action is explained by that of 'choice,' not *vice versa*.

ARISTOTLE

ἐναντίον ἐν πράξει ἄνευ διανοίας καὶ ἡθους οὐκ 35
 5 ἔστιν.]¹—διάνοια δ' αὐτῇ οὐθὲν κινεῖ, ἀλλ' ἡ
 ἕνεκά του καὶ πρᾶκτική· αὕτη γὰρ καὶ τῆς ποιη- 1139 b
 τικῆς ἄρχει· ἕνεκα γάρ του ποιεῖ πᾶς ὁ ποιῶν,
 καὶ οὐ τέλος ἀπλῶς ἀλλὰ πρὸς τι καὶ τινὲς τὸ
 ποιητόν. ἀλλὰ τὸ πρακτόν· ἡ γὰρ εὐπραξία
 τέλος, ἡ δ' ὄρεξις τούτου· διὸ ἡ ὀρεκτικὸς νοῦς 5
 ἡ προαίρεσις ἡ ὄρεξις διανοητική, καὶ [ἡ]²
 τοιαύτη ἀρχὴ ἄνθρωπος.

6 (Οὐκ ἔστι δὲ προαιρετὸν οὐθὲν γεγονός, οἷον
 οὐθεὶς προαιρεῖται Ἴλιον πεπορθηκέναι· οὐδὲ
 γὰρ βουλευέται περὶ τοῦ γεγονότος ἀλλὰ περὶ
 τοῦ ἐσομένου καὶ ἐνδεχομένου, τὸ δὲ γεγονός
 οὐκ ἐνδέχεται μὴ γενέσθαι· διὸ ὀρθῶς Ἀγαθὼν

μόνου γὰρ αὐτοῦ καὶ θεὸς στερίσκεται, 10
 ἀγέννητα ποιεῖν ἄσσ' ἂν ἦ πεπραγμένα.)

Ἀμφοτέρων δὴ τῶν νοητικῶν μορίων ἀλήθεια
 τὸ ἔργον. καθ' ἧς οὖν μάλιστα ἕξεις ἀληθεύσει
 ἐκάτερον, αὐται ἀρεταὶ ἀμφοῖν.

iii Ἀρξάμενοι οὖν ἄνωθεν περὶ αὐτῶν πάλιν
 λέγωμεν. ἔστω δὴ οἷς ἀληθεύει ἡ ψυχὴ τῷ 15
 καταφάναι ἢ ἀποφάναι πέντε τὸν ἀριθμόν· ταῦτα

¹ Greenwood.

² [ἡ]? Richards.

^a For this distinction between making and doing, pro-
 duction and action or conduct, see i. i. 2, 5.

^b See note ^b on i. iv. 2.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. ii. 4—iii. 1

and the reverse in the sphere of action necessarily involve thought and character].

- 5 Thought by itself however moves nothing, but only thought directed to an end, and dealing with action. This indeed is the moving cause of productive activity ^a also, since whoever makes something always has some further end in view: the act of making is not an end in itself, it is only a means, and belongs to something else. Whereas a thing done is an end in itself: since doing well (welfare ^b) is the End, and it is at this that desire aims.

Hence Choice may be called either thought related to desire or desire related to thought; and man, as an originator of action, is a union of desire and intellect.

Definition of
Choice or
Purpose.

- 6 (Choice is not concerned with what has happened already: for example, no one chooses to have sacked Troy; for neither does one deliberate about what has happened in the past, one deliberates about what still lies in the future and may happen or not; what has happened cannot be made not to have happened. Hence Agathon is right in saying

This only is denied even to God,
The power to make what has been done undone.)

The attainment of truth is then the function of both the intellectual parts of the soul. Therefore their respective virtues are those dispositions which will best qualify them to attain truth.

- iii Let us then discuss these virtues afresh, going more deeply into the matter.

The five
truth-
attaining
qualities.

Let it be assumed that there are five qualities through which the mind achieves truth in affirmation

ARISTOTLE

δ' ἐστὶ τέχνη, ἐπιστήμη, φρόνησις, σοφία, νοῦς·
 ὑπολήψει γὰρ καὶ δόξῃ ἐνδέχεται διαψεῦδεσθαι.
 2 ἐπιστήμη μὲν οὖν τί ἐστίν, ἐντεῦθεν φανερόν, εἰ
 δεῖ ἀκριβολογεῖσθαι καὶ μὴ ἀκολουθεῖν ταῖς
 ὁμοιότησιν. πάντες γὰρ ὑπολαμβάνομεν, ὃ ἐπι- 20
 στάμεθα, μὴ ἐνδέχεσθαι ἄλλως ἔχειν· τὰ δ' ἐν-
 δεχόμενα ἄλλως, ὅταν ἔξω τοῦ θεωρεῖν γένηται,
 λανθάνει εἰ ἔστιν ἢ μή. ἐξ ἀνάγκης ἄρα ἐστὶ
 τὸ ἐπιστητόν. αἰδίων ἄρα, τὰ γὰρ ἐξ ἀνάγκης
 ὄντα ἀπλῶς πάντα αἰδία· τὰ δ' αἰδία ἀγέννητα
 3 καὶ ἀφθαρτα. ἔτι διδακτὴ πᾶσα ἐπιστήμη δοκεῖ 25
 εἶναι, καὶ τὸ ἐπιστητόν μαθητόν. ἐκ προγινωσκο-
 μένων δὲ πᾶσα διδασκαλία, ὥσπερ καὶ ἐν τοῖς
 ἀναλυτικοῖς λέγομεν· ἢ μὲν γὰρ δι' ἐπαγωγῆς,
 ἢ δὲ συλλογισμῷ. ἢ μὲν δὴ ἐπαγωγή ἀρχῆς¹
 ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ καθόλου, ὃ δὲ συλλογισμὸς ἐκ τῶν
 καθόλου· εἰσὶν ἄρα ἀρχαὶ ἐξ ὧν ὁ² συλλογισμὸς, 30
 4 ὧν οὐκ ἔστι συλλογισμὸς· ἐπαγωγή ἄρα. ἢ μὲν
 ἄρα ἐπιστήμη ἐστὶν ἕξις ἀποδεικτική, καὶ ὅσα
 ἄλλα προσδιορίζόμεθα ἐν τοῖς ἀναλυτικοῖς· ὅταν
 γὰρ πως πιστεῦν καὶ γνώριμοι αὐτῷ ὧσιν αἱ
 ἀρχαί, ἐπίσταται· εἰ γὰρ μὴ μᾶλλον τοῦ συμ-
 περάσματος, κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς ἔξει τὴν ἐπιστήμην. 35

¹ ἀρχῆς L^b: ἀρχή.

² ὁ om. K^b.

^a τέχνη, Art, as appears below, means here craftsmanship of any kind; it includes skill in fine art, but is not limited to it.

^b See *An. Post.* i. 71 a 1 ff.

^c Demonstration in Aristotle means proof by deduction.

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or denial, namely Art or technical skill,^a Scientific Knowledge, Prudence, Wisdom, and Intelligence. Conception and Opinion are capable of error.

- 2 The nature of Scientific Knowledge (employing (1) Science. the term in its exact sense and disregarding its analogous uses) may be made clear as follows. We all conceive that a thing which we know scientifically cannot vary; when a thing that can vary is beyond the range of our observation, we do not know whether it exists or not. An object of Scientific Knowledge, therefore, exists of necessity. It is therefore eternal, for everything existing of absolute necessity is eternal; and what is eternal does not come into
3 existence or perish. Again, it is held that all Scientific Knowledge can be communicated by teaching, and that what is scientifically known must be learnt. But all teaching starts from facts previously known, as we state in the *Analytics*,^b since it proceeds either by way of induction, or else by way of deduction. Now induction supplies a first principle or universal, deduction works *from* universals; therefore there are first principles from which deduction starts, which cannot be proved by deduction; therefore
4 they are reached by induction. Scientific Knowledge, therefore, is the quality whereby we demonstrate,^c with the further qualifications included in our definition of it in the *Analytics*,^d namely, that a man knows a thing scientifically when he possesses a conviction arrived at in a certain way, and when the first principles on which that conviction rests are known to him with certainty—for unless he is more certain of his first principles than of the conclusion drawn from them he will only possess the knowledge

^a See *An. Post.* i. 71 b 9 ff.

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- περὶ μὲν οὖν ἐπιστήμης διωρίσθω τὸν τρόπον
 τοῦτον.
- iv Τοῦ δ' ἐνδεχομένου ἄλλως ἔχειν ἔστι τι καὶ 1140 :
 2 ποιητὸν καὶ πρακτόν, ἕτερον δ' ἔστι ποίησις καὶ
 πρᾶξις (πιστεύομεν δὲ περὶ αὐτῶν καὶ τοῖς
 ἐξωτερικοῖς λόγοις). ὥστε καὶ ἡ μετὰ λόγου ἔξις
 πρακτικὴ ἕτερόν ἐστι τῆς μετὰ λόγου ποιητικῆς 5
 ἔξεως. [διὸ]¹ οὐδὲ περιέχονται ὑπ' ἀλλήλων.
 οὔτε γὰρ ἡ πρᾶξις ποίησις οὔτε ἡ ποίησις πρᾶξις
 3 ἐστίν. ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ οἰκοδομικὴ τέχνη τίς ἐστι καὶ
 ὅπερ ἔξις τις μετὰ λόγου ποιητικῆς, καὶ οὐδεμία
 οὔτε τέχνη ἐστίν ἥτις οὐ μετὰ λόγου ποιητικῆς
 ἔξις ἐστίν, οὔτε τοιαύτη ἡ οὐ τέχνη, ταῦτόν ἂν 10
 εἴη τέχνη καὶ ἔξις μετὰ λόγου ἀληθοῦς ποιητικῆς.
 4 ἔστι δὲ τέχνη πᾶσα περὶ γένεσιν, καὶ τὸ τεχνάζειν
 [καί]² θεωρεῖν ὅπως ἂν γένηται τι τῶν ἐνδεχομένων
 καὶ εἶναι καὶ μὴ εἶναι, καὶ ὧν ἡ ἀρχὴ ἐν τῷ
 ποιοῦντι ἀλλὰ μὴ ἐν τῷ ποιουμένῳ. οὔτε γὰρ
 τῶν ἐξ ἀνάγκης ὄντων ἢ γινομένων ἢ τέχνη ἐστίν, 15
 οὔτε τῶν κατὰ φύσιν. ἐν αὐτοῖς γὰρ ἔχουσι ταῦτα
 5 τὴν ἀρχήν. ἐπεὶ δὲ ποίησις καὶ πρᾶξις ἕτερον,
 ἀνάγκη τὴν τέχνην ποιήσεως ἀλλ' οὐ πράξεως
 εἶναι. καὶ τρόπον τινὰ περὶ τὰ αὐτά ἐστίν ἡ
 τύχη καὶ ἡ τέχνη, καθάπερ καὶ Ἀγάθων φησὶ

τέχνη τύχην ἑσπερξε καὶ τύχη τέχνην.

20

- 6 ἡ μὲν οὖν τέχνη, ὥσπερ εἴρηται, ἔξις τις μετὰ
 λόγου ἀληθοῦς ποιητικῆς ἐστίν, ἡ δ' ἀτεχνία

¹ [διὸ] ed. : καὶ L^b.

² Muretus.

^a i.e., the conviction may happen to be true, but he will not hold it as Scientific Knowledge in the proper sense of the term.

in question accidentally.^a Let this stand as our definition of Scientific Knowledge.

iv The class of things that admit of variation includes ⁽²⁾ Art.

2 both things made and actions done. But making is different from doing (a distinction we may accept from extraneous discourses^b). Hence the rational quality concerned with doing is different from the rational quality concerned with making. Nor is one of them a part of the other, for doing is not a form of making, nor making a form of doing.

3 Now architectural skill, for instance, is an art, and it is also a rational quality concerned with making; nor is there any art which is not a rational quality concerned with making, nor any such quality which is not an art. It follows that an art is the same thing as a rational quality, concerned with making, that

4 reasons truly. All Art deals with bringing something into existence; and to pursue an art means to study how to bring into existence a thing which may either exist or not, and the efficient cause of which lies in the maker and not in the thing made; for Art does not deal with things that exist or come into existence of necessity, or according to nature, since these have their efficient cause in themselves.

5 But as doing and making are distinct, it follows that Art, being concerned with making, is not concerned with doing. And in a sense Art deals with the same objects as chance, as Agathon says :

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τοῦναντίον μετὰ λόγου ψευδοῦς ποιητικὴ ἕξις,
περὶ τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχειν.

- V Περὶ δὲ φρονήσεως οὕτως ἂν λάβοιμεν, θεωρή-
 σαντες τίνας λέγομεν τοὺς φρονίμους. δοκεῖ δὴ ²⁵
 φρονίμου εἶναι τὸ δύνασθαι καλῶς βουλευσασθαι
 περὶ τὰ αὐτῷ ἀγαθὰ καὶ συμφέροντα, οὐ κατὰ
 μέρος, οἷον ποῖα πρὸς ὑγίειαν ἢ¹ πρὸς ἰσχύν,
² ἀλλὰ ποῖα πρὸς τὸ εὖ ζῆν ὅλως.² σημεῖον δ'
 ὅτι καὶ τοὺς περὶ τι φρονίμους λέγομεν, ὅταν
 πρὸς τέλος τι σπουδαῖον εὖ λογίσωνται (ὣν μὴ ³⁰
 ἐστὶ τέχνη. ὥστε καὶ ὅλως ἂν εἴη φρόνιμος ὁ βου-
³ λευτικός). βουλευέται δ' οὐθεὶς περὶ τῶν ἀδυνάτων
 ἄλλως ἔχειν, οὐδὲ τῶν μὴ ἐνδεχομένων αὐτῷ
 πράξαι· ὥστ' εἶπερ ἐπιστήμη μὲν μετ' ἀπο-
 δείξεως, ὣν δ' αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἐνδέχονται ἄλλως ἔχειν,
 τούτων μὴ ἐστὶν ἀπόδειξις (πάντα γὰρ ἐνδέχεται ³⁵
 καὶ ἄλλως ἔχειν), καὶ οὐκ ἔστι βουλευσασθαι περὶ ¹¹⁴⁰ ^b
 τῶν ἐξ ἀνάγκης ὄντων, οὐκ ἂν εἴη ἡ φρόνησις
 ἐπιστήμη, οὐδὲ τέχνη· ἐπιστήμη μὲν ὅτι ἐνδέχε-
 ται τὸ πρακτὸν ἄλλως ἔχειν, τέχνη δ' ὅτι ἄλλο
⁴ τὸ γένος πράξεως καὶ ποιήσεως· [λείπεται³ ἄρα
 αὐτὴν εἶναι ἕξιν ἀληθῆ μετὰ λόγου πρακτικὴν ⁵
 περὶ τὰ ἀνθρώπῳ ἀγαθὰ καὶ κακά·] τῆς μὲν γὰρ
 ποιήσεως ἕτερον τὸ τέλος· τῆς δὲ πράξεως οὐκ
⁵ ἂν εἴη· ἔστι γὰρ αὐτὴ ἡ εὐπραξία τέλος*. διὰ

¹ ἢ Γ: om. K^bL^b.

² ὅλως om. K^b: ὅλον Γ.

³ λείπεται . . . κακά infra post τέλος Muretus.

^a The words 'since . . . itself the end' in the mss. follow
 § 4 'for human beings.'

^b See note on i. iv. 2.

concerned with making, that reasons falsely. Both deal with that which admits of variation.

- ▼ We may arrive at a definition of Prudence by ^{(8)Prudent} considering who are the persons⁷ whom we call prudent. Now it is held to be the mark of a prudent man to be able to deliberate well about what is good and advantageous for himself, not in some one department, for instance what is good for his health or strength, but what is advantageous as a means ² to the good life in general. This is proved by the fact that we also speak of people as prudent or wise in some particular thing, when they calculate well with a view to attaining some particular end of value (other than those ends which are the object of an art); so that the prudent man in general will be the man who is good at deliberating in general.
- 3 But no one deliberates about things that cannot vary, nor about things not within his power to do. Hence inasmuch as scientific knowledge involves demonstration, whereas things whose fundamental principles are variable are not capable of demonstration, because everything about them is variable, and inasmuch as one cannot deliberate about things that are of necessity, it follows that Prudence is not the same as Science. Nor can it be the same as Art. It is not Science, because matters of conduct admit of variation; and not Art, because doing and making are generically different, ^a since making aims at an end distinct from the act of making, whereas in doing the end cannot be other than the act itself:
- ⁴ doing well ^b is in itself the end. It remains therefore that it is a truth-attaining rational quality, concerned with action in relation to things that are good and bad for human beings.

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τοῦτο Περικλέα καὶ τοὺς τοιούτους φρονίμους οἰόμεθα εἶναι, ὅτι τὰ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθὰ καὶ τὰ τοῖς ἀνθρώποις δύνανται θεωρεῖν· εἶναι δὲ τοιούτους 10 ἡγούμεθα τοὺς οἰκονομικοὺς καὶ τοὺς πολιτικούς. (ἐνθεν καὶ τὴν σωφροσύνην τούτῳ προσαγορεύομεν τῷ ὀνόματι, ὥς σώζουσιν τὴν φρόνησιν. 6 σώζει δὲ τὴν τοιαύτην ὑπόληψιν· οὐ γὰρ ἅπασαν ὑπόληψιν διαφθείρει οὐδὲ διαστρέφει τὸ ἡδὺ καὶ τὸ λυπηρόν, οἷον ὅτι τὸ τρίγωνον δυσὶν ὀρθαῖς 15 ἴσας¹ ἔχει ἢ οὐκ ἔχει, ἀλλὰ τὰς περὶ τὸ πρακτόν. αἱ μὲν γὰρ ἀρχαὶ τῶν πρακτῶν τὸ οὐ ἔνεκα τὰ πρακτά· τῷ δὲ διεφθαρμένῳ δι' ἡδονὴν ἢ λύπην εὐθὺς οὐ φαίνεται ἀρχή,² οὐδὲ δεῖν τούτου ἔνεκεν οὐδὲ διὰ τοῦθ' αἰρεῖσθαι πάντα καὶ πράττειν· ἔστι γὰρ ἡ κακία φθαρτικὴ ἀρχὴς.) ὥστ' ἀνάγκη 20 τὴν φρόνησιν ἕξιν εἶναι μετὰ λόγου ἀληθῆ, περὶ 7 τὰ ἀνθρώπινα ἀγαθὰ πρακτικὴν. ἀλλὰ μὴν τέχνης μὲν ἐστὶν ἀρετὴ, φρονήσεως δ' οὐκ ἔστιν· καὶ ἐν μὲν τέχνῃ ὁ ἐκὼν ἀμαρτάνων αἰρετώτερος, περὶ δὲ φρόνησιν ἡττον, ὥσπερ καὶ περὶ τὰς ἀρετάς. 8 δὴλον οὖν ὅτι ἀρετὴ τίς ἐστὶ καὶ οὐ τέχνη. δυοῖν 25 δ' ὄντων μεροῖν τῆς ψυχῆς τῶν λόγον ἔχόντων, θατέρου ἂν εἴη ἀρετὴ, τοῦ δοξαστικοῦ· ἢ τε γὰρ

¹ δύο ὀρθὰς ἴσας K^b, δυὸ ὀρθὰς Bywater.

² ἡ ἀρχὴ L^b.

^a σωφροσύνη, the quality of the σώφρων (σῶς-φρῆν) or 'sound-minded' man, Aristotle derives from σώζειν and φρόνησις. Cf. VIII. viii. 4.

^b Or 'to one corrupted by pleasure or pain this end does not seem to be a first principle at all.'

^c i.e., to destroy our perception of the true end of life, which constitutes the major premise of the practical syllogism.

^d τέχνη, Art, is here (as in c. vii. 1) used in a neutral sense—one may be good at it or bad; whereas φρόνησις,

5 Hence men like Pericles are deemed prudent, because they possess a faculty of discerning what things are good for themselves and for mankind; and that is our conception of an expert in Domestic Economy or Political Science.

(This also accounts for the word Temperance,^a 6 which signifies 'preserving prudence.' And Temperance does in fact preserve our belief as to our own good; for pleasure and pain do not destroy or pervert all beliefs, for instance, the belief that the three angles of a triangle are, or are not, together equal to two right angles, but only beliefs concerning action. The first principles of action are the end to which our acts are means; but a man corrupted by a love of pleasure or fear of pain, entirely fails to discern any first principle,^b and cannot see that he ought to choose and do everything as a means to this end, and for its sake; for vice tends to destroy the sense of principle.^c)

It therefore follows that Prudence is a truth-attaining rational quality, concerned with action in relation to the things that are good for human beings.

7 Moreover, we can speak of excellence in Art,^d but not of excellence in Prudence. Also in Art voluntary error is not so bad as involuntary, whereas in the sphere of Prudence it is worse, as it is in the sphere of the virtues. It is therefore clear that Prudence is an excellence or virtue, and not an Art.

8 Of the two parts of the soul possessed of reason, Prudence must be the virtue of one, namely, the

Prudence or practical wisdom, itself denotes an excellence, not a neutral sphere in which one may excel or the reverse. Elsewhere in this book $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\chi\nu\eta$ has the positive sense of artistic excellence or technical skill.

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δόξα περὶ τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχειν καὶ ἡ φρόνησις. ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' ἕξις μετὰ λόγου μόνον· σημείον δ' ὅτι λήθη τῆς μὲν¹ τοιαύτης ἕξεώς ἐστι, φρονήσεως δ' οὐκ ἔστιν. 30

vī Ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ ἐπιστήμη περὶ τῶν καθόλου ἐστὶν ὑπόληψις καὶ τῶν ἐξ ἀνάγκης ὄντων, εἰσὶ δ' ἀρχαὶ τῶν ἀποδεικτῶν καὶ πάσης ἐπιστήμης (μετὰ λόγου γὰρ ἡ ἐπιστήμη), τῆς ἀρχῆς τοῦ ἐπιστητοῦ οὗτ' ἂν ἐπιστήμη εἴη οὔτε τέχνη οὔτε φρόνησις· τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστητὸν ἀποδεικτόν, αἱ³⁵ δὲ τυγχάνουσιν οὔσαι περὶ τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως 1141 ἔχειν. οὐδὲ δὴ σοφία τούτων ἐστίν· τοῦ γὰρ 2 σοφοῦ περὶ ἐνίων ἔχειν ἀπόδειξιν ἐστίν. εἰ δὴ οἷς ἀληθεύομεν καὶ μηδέποτε διαψευδόμεθα περὶ τὰ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενα ἢ καὶ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν, 5 ἐπιστήμη καὶ φρόνησις ἐστὶ καὶ σοφία καὶ νοῦς, τούτων δὲ τῶν τριῶν μὴθὲν ἐνδέχεται εἶναι (λέγω δὲ τρία² φρόνησιν ἐπιστήμην σοφίαν), λείπεται νοῦν εἶναι τῶν ἀρχῶν.

vii Τὴν δὲ σοφίαν ἔν τε ταῖς τέχναις τοῖς ἀκριβεστάτοις τὰς τέχνας ἀποδίδομεν, οἷον Φειδίαν 10

¹ τῆς μὲν Γ : μὲν τῆς K^bL^b.

² <τὰ> τρία Richards.

^a Called in c. i. 6 the Calculative Faculty.

^b A loss of Prudence is felt to involve a moral lapse, which shows that it is not a purely intellectual quality.

^c i.e., not exclusively : see c. vii. 3.

^d See c. iii. 4, note ^c.

^e Cf. c. iii. 1. Art is here omitted from the list.

^f νοῦς now receives its special sense (see ii. 1, note) of a particular virtue of the intellect, viz. that faculty of rational intuition whereby it correctly apprehends (by process of

part that forms opinions^a; for Opinion deals with that which can vary, and so does Prudence. But yet Prudence is not a rational quality merely, as is shown by the fact that a purely rational faculty can be forgotten, whereas a failure in Prudence is not a mere lapse of memory.^b

vi Scientific Knowledge is a mode of conception dealing with universals and things that are of necessity; and demonstrated truths and all scientific knowledge (since this involves reasoning) are derived from first principles. Consequently the first principles from which scientific truths are derived cannot themselves be reached by Science; nor yet are they apprehended by Art, nor by Prudence. To be matter of Scientific Knowledge a truth must be demonstrated by deduction from other truths; while Art and Prudence are concerned only with things that admit of variation. Nor is Wisdom the knowledge of first principles either^c: for the philosopher has to arrive at some things by demonstration.^d

(4) Intelligence or Rational Intuition.

2 If then the qualities whereby we attain truth,^e and are never led into falsehood, whether about things invariable or things variable, are scientific Knowledge, Prudence, Wisdom, and Intelligence, and if the quality which enables us to apprehend first principles cannot be any one among three of these, namely Scientific Knowledge, Prudence, and Wisdom, it remains that first principles must be apprehended by Intelligence.^f

vii The term Wisdom is employed in the arts to denote those men who are the most perfect masters of their art, for instance, it is applied to Pheidias

(5) Wisdom.

induction, see iii. 3) undemonstrable first principles. It is thus a part of *σοφία* (c. vii. 3, 5).

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λιθουργὸν σοφὸν καὶ Πολύκλειτον ἀνδριαντοποιόν,
 ἐνταῦθα μὲν οὖν οὐθέν ἄλλο σημαίνοντες τὴν
 2 σοφίαν ἢ ὅτι ἀρετὴ τέχνης ἐστίν· εἶναι δέ τινας
 σοφοὺς οἰόμεθα ὅλως, οὐ κατὰ μέρος οὐδ' ἄλλο
 τι σοφούς, ὥσπερ Ὀμηρὸς φησιν ἐν τῷ Μαργίτῃ

τὸν δ' οὐτ' ἄρ σκαπτῆρα θεοὶ θέσαν οὐτ' ἀροτῆρα 15
 οὐτ' ἄλλως τι σοφόν.

ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι ἡ ἀκριβεστάτη ἂν τῶν ἐπιστημῶν
 3 εἴη ἡ σοφία. δεῖ ἄρα τὸν σοφὸν μὴ μόνον τὰ ἐκ
 τῶν ἀρχῶν εἰδέναι, ἀλλὰ καὶ περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς ἀλη-
 θεύειν. ὥστ' εἴη ἂν ἡ σοφία νοῦς καὶ ἐπιστήμη,
 ὥσπερ¹ κεφαλὴν ἔχουσα ἐπιστήμη τῶν τιμιωτάτων. 20
 —ἀτοπον γὰρ εἴ τις τὴν πολιτικὴν ἢ τὴν φρόνησιν
 σπουδαιοτάτην οἶεται εἶναι, εἰ μὴ τὸ ἄριστον
 4 τῶν ἐν τῷ κόσμῳ ἀνθρωπὸς ἐστίν. εἰ δ'² ὑγιεινὸν
 μὲν καὶ ἀγαθὸν ἕτερον ἀνθρώποις καὶ ἰχθύσι, τὸ
 δὲ λευκὸν καὶ εὐθὺ ταῦτόν ἀεί, καὶ τὸ σοφὸν
 ταῦτόν πάντες ἂν εἴποιεν, φρόνιμον δὲ ἕτερον. 25
 τὸ γὰρ <τὸ>³ περὶ αὐτὰ⁴ ἕκαστα [τὸ]⁵ εὖ θεωροῦν
 φησὶν⁶ εἶναι φρόνιμον, καὶ τούτῳ ἐπιτρέψει⁷ αὐτά⁸.
 διὸ καὶ τῶν θηρίων ἕνια φρόνιμά φασιν εἶναι,
 ὅσα περὶ τὸν αὐτῶν βίον ἔχοντα φαίνεται δύναμιν
 προνοητικὴν. φανερόν δὲ καὶ ὅτι οὐκ ἂν εἴη ἡ
 σοφία καὶ ἡ πολιτικὴ ἡ αὐτή· εἰ γὰρ τὴν περὶ τὰ 30

¹ καὶ ὥσπερ L^bΓ.

² δ' M^b, δὴ vulg. : γὰρ ? ed.

³ <τὸ> ed. : <τὰ> Coraes.

⁴ αὐτὰ ed. : αὐτὸ.

⁵ [τὸ] om. ΓM^b.

⁶ φαίεν L^b, φαίεν ἂν Γ.

⁷ ἐπιτρέψειεν L^b, ἐπιτρέψειαν ΓM^b.

⁸ αὐτά Ald., corr² K^b : αὐτὰ vulg., αὐτό ? ed.

^a The sense rather requires 'wise in some particular thing,' but the expression is assimilated to the quotation.

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as a sculptor and to Polycleitus as a statuary. In this use then Wisdom merely signifies artistic excellence. But we also think that some people are wise in general and not in one department, not 'wise in something else,'^a as Homer says in the *Margites* :

Neither a delver nor a ploughman him
The Gods had made, nor wise in aught beside.

Hence it is clear that Wisdom must be the most perfect of the modes of knowledge. The wise man therefore must not only know the conclusions that follow from his first principles, but also have a true conception of those principles themselves. Hence Wisdom must be a combination of Intelligence and Scientific Knowledge^b : it must be a consummated knowledge^c of the most exalted^d objects.

Relation of
Wisdom to
Intelligence
and Science;
and its distinction
from Prudence
and
Political
Science.

For it is absurd to think that Political Science or Prudence is the loftiest kind of knowledge, inasmuch as man is not the highest thing in the world. And as 'wholesome' and 'good' mean one thing for men and another for fishes, whereas 'white' and 'straight' mean the same thing always, so everybody would denote the same thing by 'wise,' but not by 'prudent'; for each kind of beings will describe as prudent, and will entrust itself to, one who can discern its own particular welfare; hence even some of the lower animals are said to be prudent, namely those which display a capacity for forethought as regards their own lives.

It is also clear that Wisdom cannot be the same thing as Political Science; for if we are to call

^b See vi. 1, 2.

^c Literally 'knowledge having as it were a head,' a phrase copied from Plato, *Gorgias*, 505 D.

^d See §§ 4, 5, and, for the technical sense of *τιμω*, I. xii.

ὠφέλιμα τὰ αὐτοῖς ἔροῦσι σοφίαν, πολλαὶ ἔσονται
 σοφαί· οὐ γὰρ μία περὶ τὸ ἀπάντων ἀγαθὸν
 τῶν ζώων, ἀλλ', ἑτέρα περὶ ἕκαστον, εἰ μὴ καὶ
 ἱατρικὴ μία περὶ πάντων τῶν ὄντων. εἰ δ' ὅτι
 βέλτιστον ἄνθρωπος τῶν ἄλλων ζώων, οὐδὲν
 διαφέρει· καὶ γὰρ ἀνθρώπου ἄλλα πολὺ θεϊότερα ^{1141 b}
 τὴν φύσιν, οἷον φανερώτατά γε ἐξ ὧν ὁ κόσμος
 5 συνέστηκεν. ἐκ δὴ τῶν εἰρημένων δῆλον ὅτι ἡ
 σοφία ἐστὶ καὶ ἐπιστήμη καὶ νοῦς τῶν τιμιωτάτων
 τῇ φύσει. διὸ Ἀναξαγόραν καὶ Θαλῆν καὶ τοὺς
 τοιούτους σοφοὺς μὲν, φρονίμους δ' οὐ φασιν ⁵
 εἶναι, ὅταν ἴδωσιν ἀγνοοῦντας τὰ συμφέρονθ'
 ἑαυτοῖς, καὶ περιττὰ μὲν καὶ θαυμαστὰ καὶ χα-
 λεπὰ καὶ δαιμόνια εἶδέναι αὐτοὺς φασιν, ἄχρηστα
 6 δ', ὅτι οὐ τὰ ἀνθρώπινα ἀγαθὰ ζητοῦσιν. ἡ δὲ
 φρόνησις περὶ τὰ ἀνθρώπινα, καὶ περὶ ὧν ἔστι
 βουλευσασθαι. τοῦ γὰρ φρονίμου μάλιστα τοῦτ' ¹⁰
 ἔργον εἶναι φαμεν, τὸ εὖ βουλευέσθαι· βουλεύεται
 δ' οὐθεὶς περὶ τῶν ἀδυνάτων ἄλλως ἔχειν, οὐδ'
 ὅσων μὴ τέλος τί ἐστι, καὶ τοῦτο πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν·
 ὁ δ' ἀπλῶς εὐβουλος ὁ τοῦ ἀριστοῦ ἀνθρώπου τῶν
 7 πρακτῶν στοχαστικὸς κατὰ τὸν λογισμόν. οὐδ'
 ἐστὲν ἡ φρόνησις τῶν καθόλου μόνον, ἀλλὰ δεῖ ¹⁵

^a This means apparently the sun, stars, and planets, else-
 where referred to by Aristotle as 'the divine bodies that move
 through the heaven,' 'the visible divine things,' 'the heaven
 and the most divine of visible things' (*Met.* 1074 a 30,
 1026 a 18, *Phys.* 196 a 33).

^b See § 2, note.

^c Thales was the first of the Seven Wise Men : Anaxagoras
 belonged to a later generation.

knowledge of our own interests wisdom, there will be a number of different kinds of wisdom, one for each species : there cannot be a single such wisdom dealing with the good of all living things, any more than there is one art of medicine for all existing things. It may be argued that man is superior to the other animals, but this makes no difference : since there exist other things far more divine in their nature than man, for instance, to mention the most visible, the things^a of which the celestial system is composed.

- 5 These considerations therefore show that Wisdom is both Scientific Knowledge and Intuitive Intelligence as regards the things of the most exalted^b nature. This is why people say that men like Anaxagoras and Thales^c 'may be wise but are not prudent,' when they see them display ignorance of their own interests ; and while admitting them to possess a knowledge that is rare, marvellous, difficult and even superhuman, they yet declare this knowledge to be useless, because these sages do not seek to know the things that are good for human beings.

- 6 Prudence on the other hand is concerned with the affairs of men, and with things that can be the object of deliberation. For we say that to deliberate well is the most characteristic function of the prudent man ; but no one deliberates about things that cannot vary nor yet about variable things that are not a means to some end, and that end a good attainable by action ; and a good deliberator in general is a man who can arrive by calculation at the best of the goods attainable by man.

Prudence
further
examined.

- 7 Nor is Prudence a knowledge of general principles only : it must also take account of particular facts,

ARISTOTLE

καὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα γνωρίζειν· πρακτικὴ γάρ, ἡ δὲ πράξεις περὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα. διὸ καὶ ἔνιοι οὐκ εἰδότες ἐτέρων εἰδόντων πρακτικώτεροι [καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις οἱ ἔμπειροι]¹ εἰ γὰρ εἰδείη ὅτι τὰ κοῦφα εὖπεπτα κρέα καὶ ὑγιεινά, ποῖα δὲ κοῦφα ἀγνοοῖ, οὐ ποιήσει ὑγιειαν, ἀλλ' ὁ εἰδὼς ὅτι τὰ ²⁰ ὀρνίθεια [κοῦφα καὶ]² ὑγιεινὰ ποιήσει μᾶλλον.* ἡ δὲ φρόνησις πρακτικὴ· ὥστε δεῖ ἄμφω ἔχειν, ἡ ταύτην μᾶλλον. εἴη δ' ἂν τις καὶ ἐνταῦθα ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ.

- iii Ἔστι δὲ καὶ ἡ πολιτικὴ καὶ ἡ φρόνησις ἡ αὕτη
² μὲν ἕξις, τὸ μέντοι εἶναι οὐ ταῦτόν αὐταῖς. τῆς δὲ περὶ πόλιν ἡ μὲν ὡς ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ [φρόνησις] ²⁵ νομοθετικὴ, ἡ δὲ ὡς <περὶ>³ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα τὸ κοινὸν ἔχει ὄνομα, πολιτικὴ· αὕτη δὲ⁴ πρακτικὴ καὶ βουλευτικὴ (τὸ γὰρ ψήφισμα πρακτὸν ὡς τὸ ἔσχατον), διὸ πολιτεύεσθαι τούτους μόνους λέγουσιν, μόνοι γὰρ πράττουσιν οὗτοι ὥσπερ οἱ ³ χειροτέχνη. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ φρόνησις μάλιστα εἶναι ³⁰ ἡ περὶ αὐτὸν καὶ ἓνα· καὶ ἔχει αὕτη τὸ κοινόν

¹ [καὶ . . . ἔμπειροι] infra post μᾶλλον Richards.

² Trendelenburg.

³ <περὶ> Γ².

⁴ δέ: γὰρ? ed.

^a The words 'for instance . . . chicken is wholesome' in the mss. come after 'theorists.'

^b i.e., πολιτικὴ, Political Science or Statesmanship (cf. i. i., ii.), the relation of which to Prudence is next considered.

^c Cf. v. i. 20. Political Wisdom is a special application of Prudence, for though the term 'Prudence' is in ordinary usage confined to practical wisdom in one's private affairs, it really extends to the affairs of one's family and of the community.

^d In the Greek city-state legislature was not regarded as the normal function of parliament, but of a founder or reformer of the constitution, or of a special legislative commission.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. vii. 7—viii. 3

since it is concerned with action, and action deals with particular things. This is why men who are ignorant of general principles are sometimes more successful in action than others who know them: "for instance, if a man knows that light meat is easily digested and therefore wholesome, but does not know what kinds of meat are light, he will not be so likely to restore you to health as a man who merely knows that chicken is wholesome; and in other matters men of experience are more successful than theorists. And Prudence is concerned with action, so one requires both forms of it, or indeed knowledge of particular facts even more than knowledge of general principles. Though here too there must be some supreme directing faculty.^b

- viii Prudence is indeed the same quality of mind as Prudence includes Political Science.
- 2 Political Science, though differently conceived.^c Of Prudence as regards the state, one kind, as supreme and directive, is called Legislative Science^d; the other, as dealing with particular occurrences, has the name, Political Science, that really belongs to both kinds. The latter is concerned with action and deliberation (for a parliamentary enactment is a thing to be done, being the last step^e in a deliberative process), and this is why it is only those persons who deal with particular facts who are spoken of as 'taking part in politics,' because it is only they who perform actions, like the workmen in an industry.^f
- 3 Prudence also is commonly understood to mean especially that kind of wisdom which is concerned with oneself, the individual; and this is given the

^b Cf. III. iii. 12.

^f In contrast with the law-giver and the master-craftsman respectively.

ARISTOTLE

ὄνομα, φρόνησις, ἐκείνων δὲ ἡ μὲν οἰκονομία, ἡ
δὲ νομοθεσία, ἡ δὲ πολιτική, καὶ ταύτης ἡ μὲν
4 βουλευτική ἡ δὲ δικαστική. εἶδος μὲν οὖν τι ἂν
εἴη [γνώσεως¹] τὸ τὸ² αὐτοῦ³ εἰδέναι, ἀλλ' ἔχει δια-
φορὰν πολλήν, καὶ δοκεῖ ὁ τὸ⁴ περὶ αὐτὸν εἰδὼς 1142 a
καὶ διατρίβων φρόνιμος εἶναι, οἱ δὲ πολιτικοὶ
πολυπράγμονες· διὸ Εὐριπίδης

πῶς δ' ἂν φρονοίην, ᾧ παρὴν ἀπραγμόνως
ἐν τοῖσι πολλοῖς ἡριθμημένον⁵ στρατοῦ
ἴσον μετασχεῖν;

5

τοὺς γὰρ περισσοὺς καὶ τι πράσσοντας πλέον.

ζητοῦσι γὰρ τὸ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθόν, καὶ οἷονται τοῦτο
δεῖν πράττειν. ἐκ ταύτης οὖν τῆς δόξης ἐλήλυθε
τὸ τούτους φρονίμους εἶναι. καίτοι ἴσως οὐκ
ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ⁶ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πο- 10
λιτείας.⁷ ἔτι δὲ τὰ αὐτοῦ πῶς δεῖ διοικεῖν,
ἄδηλον καὶ σκεπτέον.⁸

5 Σημέιον δ' ἐστὶ τοῦ εἰρημένου καὶ διότι γεω-
μετρικοὶ μὲν νέοι καὶ μαθηματικοὶ γίνονται
καὶ σοφοὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα, φρόνιμος δ' οὐ δοκεῖ
γίνεσθαι. αἴτιον δ' ὅτι καὶ⁹ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστά

¹ [γνώσεως]? Spengel: φρονήσεως v.l. ap. Eustratium.

² τὸ τὸ ed., τὸ τὰ L^b, τὸ K^b.

³ αὐτοῦ M^b et ut videtur pr. K^b: corr¹ K^b αὐτῶι, corr²
αὐτὸν: L^b αὐτῷ.

⁴ τὸ pr. K^b: τὰ.

⁵ ἡριθμημένον K^bΓ: -μένω L^b.

⁶ εὖ K^b: εἰδέναι M^b, om. L^bΓ.

⁷ πολιτικῆς Richards.

⁸ ἔτι δὲ . . . σκεπτέον secludenda? ed.

⁹ καὶ om. M^b.

^a From the lost *Philoctetes* of Euripides, frs. 785, 786
Dindorf. The third line went on

with the wisest. . . .

For there is naught so foolish as a man!

Restless, aspiring, busy men of action

We honour and esteem as men of mark . . .

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. viii. 3-5

name, Prudence, which really belongs to all the kinds, while the others are distinguished as Domestic Economy, Legislature, and Political Science, the latter being subdivided into Deliberative Science
4 and Judicial Science. Now knowledge of one's own interest will certainly be one kind of Prudence; though it is very different from the other kinds, and people think that the man who knows and minds his own business is prudent, and that politicians are busybodies: thus Euripides writes—

Would that be prudent? when I might have lived
A quiet life, a cipher in the crowd,
Sharing the common fortune . . .
Restless, aspiring, busy men of action . . .^a

For people seek their own good, and suppose that it is right to do so. Hence this belief has caused the word 'prudent' to mean those who are wise in their own interest. Yet probably as a matter of fact a man cannot pursue his own welfare without Domestic Economy and even Politics. Moreover, even the proper conduct of one's own affairs is a difficult problem, and requires consideration.

5 A further proof of what has been said ^b is, that although the young may be experts in geometry and mathematics and similar branches of knowledge, we do not consider that a young man can have Prudence. The reason is that Prudence includes a

^b The reference seems to be to c. vii. 7, where it is stated that Prudence takes cognizance of particular facts. The intervening passage, examining the relation of Prudence to Political Science, emphasizes its other aspect, the apprehension of general principles.

ARISTOTLE

ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις, ἃ γίνεται γνῶριμα ἐξ ἐμπειρίας, 15
 νέος δ' ἐμπειρος οὐκ ἔστιν· πλῆθος γὰρ χρόνου
 6 ποιεῖ τὴν ἐμπειρίαν. (ἐπεὶ καὶ τοῦτ' ἂν τις
 σκέψαιτο, διὰ τί δὴ μαθηματικὸς μὲν παῖς γένοιτ'
 ἂν, σοφὸς δ' ἢ φυσικὸς οὐ. ἢ ὅτι τὰ μὲν δι'
 ἀφαιρέσεώς ἐστιν, τῶν δ' αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἐξ ἐμπειρίας·
 καὶ τὰ μὲν οὐ¹ πιστεύουσιν οἱ νέοι ἀλλὰ λέγουσιν, 20
 7 τῶν δὲ τὸ τί ἐστὶν οὐκ ἄδηλον;)—ἐτι ἡ ἀμαρτία
 ἢ περὶ τὸ καθόλου ἐν τῷ βουλευέσασθαι ἢ περὶ
 τὸ καθ' ἕκαστον· ἢ γὰρ ὅτι πάντα τὰ βαρύσταθμα
 ὕδατα φαῦλα, ἢ ὅτι τοδὶ βαρύσταθμον.

8 Ὅτι δ' ἡ φρόνησις οὐκ ἐπιστήμη, φανερόν·
 τοῦ γὰρ ἐσχάτου ἐστίν, ὥσπερ εἴρηται· τὸ γὰρ 25
 9 πρακτὸν τοιοῦτον. ἀντίκειται μὲν² δὴ τῷ νῷ· ὁ
 μὲν γὰρ νοῦς τῶν ὄρων, ὧν οὐκ ἔστι λόγος, ἡ δὲ
 τοῦ ἐσχάτου, οὐ οὐκ ἔστιν ἐπιστήμη ἀλλ' αἴσθησις,
 οὐχ ἡ τῶν ἰδίων, ἀλλ' οἷα αἰσθανόμεθα ὅτι τὸ
 ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς ἔσχατον τρίγωνον· στήσεται

¹ [οὐ] . . . ἀλλοις λέγουσι Immelmann.

² μὲν om. L^b.

^a The Greek looks like a buried verse quotation.

^b The three divisions of the subject matter of Wisdom.

^c Immelmann's emendation gives 'can only take them on credit from others.'

^d Cf. § 2 above, c. vii. 7, and iii. iii. 12.

^e See notes on c. vi. 2 and xi. 4. Definitions are the first principles of science.

^f Literally 'of the objects peculiar to the special senses.' Shape was one of the 'common sensibles,' perceived through the medium of more than one of the special senses, by the 'common sense.'

^g A triangle is the last form into which a rectilinear figure can be divided: two straight lines cannot enclose a space. Or the words may possibly mean 'whereby we perceive that a particular mathematical figure is [for example] a triangle.' But this would, rather be expressed by τοδὶ τὸ ἔσχατον, or τοδὶ alone.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. viii. 5-9

knowledge of particular facts, and this is derived from experience, which a young man does not possess ; for experience is the fruit of years.^a (One might indeed further enquire why it is that, though a boy may be a mathematician, he cannot be a metaphysician or a natural philosopher.^b Perhaps the answer is that Mathematics deals with abstractions, whereas the first principles of Metaphysics and Natural Philosophy are derived from experience : the young can only repeat them without conviction of their truth,^c whereas the formal concepts of Mathematics are easily understood.) Again, in deliberation there is a double possibility of error : you may go wrong either in your general principle or in your particular fact : for instance, either in asserting that all heavy water is unwholesome, or that the particular water in question is heavy.

8 And it is clear that Prudence is not the same as Scientific Knowledge : for as has been said, it apprehends ultimate particular things, since the thing to be done is an ultimate particular thing.^d

9 Prudence then stands opposite to Intelligence ; for Intelligence ^e apprehends definitions, which cannot be proved by reasoning, while Prudence deals with the ultimate particular thing, which cannot be apprehended by Scientific Knowledge, but only by perception : not the perception of the special senses,^f but the sort of intuition whereby we perceive that the ultimate figure in mathematics is a triangle ^g ; for there, too, there will be a stop.^h But the term

Prudence
and Intelli-
gence.

^a That is, we reach the limit of analysis just as much when we descend to particulars as when we ascend to first principles or definitions (Burnet). Or the words may mean 'in mathematics as in problems of conduct there is a point where analysis must stop.'

ARISTOTLE

γὰρ καὶ κεῖ. ἀλλ' αὕτη μᾶλλον αἰσθησις ἢ¹ φρόνησις, 30
ἐκείνης δ' ἄλλο εἶδος.

- ix [Τὸ ζητεῖν δὲ καὶ τὸ βουλευέσθαι διαφέρει·
τὸ γὰρ βουλευέσθαι ζητεῖν τι ἐστίν.]² δεῖ δὲ
λαβεῖν καὶ περὶ εὐβουλίας τί ἐστι, πότερον ἐπι-
στήμη τις ἢ δόξα ἢ εὐστοχία, ἢ ἄλλο τι γένος.
2 ἐπιστήμη μὲν δὴ οὐχ ἔστιν· οὐ γὰρ ζητοῦσι περὶ 1142 b
ὧν ἴσασιν, ἢ δ' εὐβουλία βουλή τις, ὃ δὲ βουλευόμε-
νος ζητεῖ καὶ λογίζεται.*—ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' εὐστοχία·
ἄνευ τε γὰρ λόγου καὶ ταχύ τι ἢ εὐστοχία, βου-
λεύονται δὲ πολὺν χρόνον, καὶ φασὶ πράττειν μὲν
δεῖν ταχὺ τὰ βουλευθέντα, βουλευέσθαι δὲ βραδέως. 5
3 ἔτι ἢ ἀγχίνοια ἕτερον καὶ ἢ εὐβουλία· ἔστι δ'
εὐστοχία τις ἢ ἀγχίνοια. οὐδὲ δὴ δόξα ἢ εὐβουλία
οὐδεμία. ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ ὁ μὲν κακῶς βουλευόμενος
ἀμαρτάνει, ὃ δ' εὖ ὀρθῶς βουλεύεται,³ δῆλον ὅτι
ὀρθότης τις ἢ εὐβουλία ἐστίν, οὗτ' ἐπιστήμης δὲ
οὔτε δόξης· ἐπιστήμης μὲν γὰρ οὐκ ἔστιν ὀρθότης 10

¹ ἢ L^bΓ: ἢ ἢ? Burnet.

² τὸ ζητεῖν . . . ἐστίν infra post λογίζεται Richards.

³ πράττει Richards.

^a The intuition of particular facts which is a part of Prudence also belongs to the genus perception, but it is intellectual, not sensuous. The Greek may however conceivably mean, 'But the intuition of the ultimate particular in problems of conduct approximates more to sensation than to prudence, though it is a different species from the perception of the separate senses.'

^b In the mss. the chapter begins with the sentence 'But deliberation,' etc., here transferred to the middle of § 2.

^c Viz., matters of conduct.

perception applies in a fuller sense to mathematical intuition than to Prudence; the practical intuition

- of the latter belongs to a different species.^a

ix ^b We ought also to ascertain the nature of Deliberative Excellence, and to discover whether it is a species of Knowledge, or of Opinion, or skill in Conjecture, or something different from these in kind.

Qualities related to Prudence :
(1) Excellence in Deliberation.

- 2 Now it is not Knowledge : for men do not investigate matters about which they know, whereas Deliberative Excellence is one form of deliberation, and deliberating implies investigating and calculating. But deliberation is not the same as investigation : it is the investigation of a particular subject.^c

Nor yet is it skill in Conjecture : for this operates without conscious calculation, and rapidly, whereas deliberating takes a long time, and there is a proverb that execution should be swift but deliberation slow.

- 3 Again, Deliberative Excellence is not the same as Quickness of mind,^d which is a form of skill in Conjecture.

Nor yet is Deliberative Excellence any form of Opinion.

But inasmuch as a bad deliberator makes mistakes and a good deliberator deliberates correctly,^e it is clear that Deliberative Excellence is some form of correctness; though it is not correctness of Knowledge, nor of Opinion. Correctness cannot be predi-

^a ἀρχήναια appears from *Analytica Posteriora*, I. xxxiii. 89 b 10, to denote the faculty of guessing immediately the 'middle term' or fact which explains the relation observed between two objects.

^e Perhaps the text should be emended to read 'inasmuch as one who deliberates badly goes wrong and one who deliberates well acts rightly.'

ARISTOTLE

(οὐδὲ γὰρ ἀμαρτία), δόξης δ' ὀρθότης ἀλήθεια· ἅμα δὲ καὶ ὥριστα ἤδη πᾶν οὗ δόξα ἐστίν· [ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' ἄνευ λόγου ἢ εὐβουλία· διανοίας ἄρα* λείπεται· αὕτη γὰρ οὐπω φάσις·]¹ καὶ γὰρ ἡ δόξα οὐ ζήτησις ἀλλὰ φάσις τις ἤδη, ὃ δὲ βουλευόμενος, εἴαν τε εὖ εἴαν τε² κακῶς βουλευῆται,¹⁵
⁴ ζητεῖ τι καὶ λογίζεται. ἀλλ' ὀρθότης τίς ἐστίν ἢ εὐβουλία βουλῆς. [διὸ ἡ βουλή ζητητέα πρῶτον τί καὶ περὶ τί·]³ ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ ὀρθότης πλεοναχῶς, δῆλον ὅτι οὐ πᾶσα· ὃ γὰρ ἀκρατῆς καὶ ὃ φαῦλος ὃ προτίθεται δεῖν⁴ ἐκ τοῦ λογισμοῦ τεύξεται, ὥστε ὀρθῶς ἔσται βεβουλευμένος, κακὸν δὲ μέγα²⁰ εἰληφώς· δοκεῖ δ' ἀγαθόν τι εἶναι τὸ εὖ βεβουλευθῆναι. ἡ ἄρα⁵ τοιαύτη ὀρθότης βουλῆς εὐβουλία,
⁵ ἡ ἀγαθοῦ τευκτική. ἀλλ' ἔστι καὶ τούτου ψευδεῖ συλλογισμῷ τυχεῖν, καὶ ὃ μὲν δεῖ ποιῆσαι τυχεῖν, δι' οὗ δ' οὗ, ἀλλὰ ψευδῇ τὸν μέσον ὅρον εἶναι·

¹ Gifanius.

² τε καὶ K^b.

³ Spengel.

⁴ δεῖν Γ (δεῖν <ποιεῖν> Richards): ἰδεῖν (εἰ δεῖν<ός> Apelt).

⁵ ἄρα Spengel: γὰρ.

^a *i.e.*, correct knowledge is a redundant expression; knowledge *means* correct notions; erroneous notions are not knowledge.

^b The two sentences bracketed interrupt the argument. The first seems to belong to § 2, though it does not fit in there exactly. The second is altogether irrelevant, and employs the term *διάνοια* of the intellect as enquiring, not as contemplating the results of enquiry, a Platonic use not found elsewhere in Aristotle: 'correctness in thinking' here is in fact equivalent to 'correctness in deliberation' in § 4.

^c The sentence bracketed interrupts the argument; and no examination of deliberation follows.

^d No distinction seems to be made between arriving at the right conclusion of a practical syllogism, *i.e.* inferring

cated of Knowledge,^a any more than can error, and correctness of Opinion is truth ; and also any matter about which one has an opinion has been settled already ; [then again Deliberative Excellence necessarily involves conscious calculation. It remains therefore that Deliberative Excellence is correctness in thinking, for thought has not reached the stage of affirmation ;]^b for Opinion has passed beyond the stage of investigation and is a form of affirmation, whereas a man deliberating, whether he deliberates well or badly, is investigating and calculating something.

4 But Deliberative Excellence is a form of correctness in deliberation [so that we have first to investigate what deliberation is, and what object it deals with].^c However, 'correctness' in this connexion is ambiguous, and plainly it is not every kind of correctness in deliberation that constitutes Deliberative Excellence. A man of deficient self-restraint or a bad man may as a result of calculation arrive at the object he proposes as the right thing to do, so that he will have deliberated correctly, although he will have gained something extremely evil ; whereas to have deliberated well is felt to be a good thing. Therefore it is this kind of correctness in deliberation that is Deliberative Excellence, namely being correct in the sense of arriving at something good.^d

5 But it is possible to arrive at a good conclusion, as well as at a bad one, by a false process of reasoning ; one may arrive at what is the right thing to do, but not arrive at it on the right grounds, but by means of a wrong middle term. This quality

correctly what is to be done as a means to some End, and actually achieving that End by action.

ARISTOTLE

ὥστ' οὐδ' αὐτῇ πω εὐβουλία, καθ' ἣν οὐ δεῖ μὲν ²⁵
 6 τυγχάνει, οὐ μέντοι δι' οὐ ἔδει. ἔτι ἔστι πολὺν
 χρόνον βουλευόμενον τυχεῖν, τὸν δὲ ταχύ. οὐκοῦν
 οὐδ' ἐκείνῃ πω εὐβουλία, ἀλλ' ὀρθότης ἢ κατὰ
 7 τὸ ὠφέλιμον, καὶ οὐ δεῖ καὶ ὥς καὶ ὅτε. ἔτι ἔστι
 καὶ ἀπλῶς εὐ βεβουλευῆσθαι καὶ πρὸς τι τέλος. ἢ
 μὲν δὴ ἀπλῶς ἢ πρὸς τὸ τέλος τὸ ἀπλῶς κατ- ³⁰
 ορθοῦσα, τίς δὲ ἢ πρὸς τι τέλος. εἰ δὴ τῶν φρο-
 νίμων τὸ εὐ βεβουλευῆσθαι, ἢ εὐβουλία εἴη ἂν
 ὀρθότης ἢ κατὰ τὸ συμφέρον πρὸς τὸ² τέλος, οὐ
 ἢ φρόνησις ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις ἐστίν.
 x "Ἐστι δὲ καὶ ἡ σύνεσις καὶ ἡ εὐσυνεσία,³ καθ'
 ἃς λέγομεν συνετοὺς καὶ εὐσυνέτους,⁴ οὐθ' ὅλως ^{1143 a}
 τὸ αὐτὸ ἐπιστήμη (ἢ δόξη—πάντες γὰρ ἂν ἦσαν
 συνετοί) οὔτε τις μία τῶν κατὰ μέρος ἐπιστημῶν,
 οἷον ἰατρικὴ περὶ ὑγιεινῶν ἢ γεωμετρία περὶ
 2 μεγέθους⁵ οὔτε γὰρ περὶ τῶν αἰεὶ ὄντων καὶ ἀκινήτων⁵

¹ τίς δὲ: ἢ δέ τις L^b.

² τὸ K^b: τι. ³ εὐσυνεσία H. Stephanus: ἀσυνεσία.

⁴ εὐσυνέτους H. Stephanus: ἀσυνέτους. ⁵ μεγέθους L^b.

^a At the right time, because deliberation must neither be so prolonged as to miss the opportunity for action, nor so rapid as to be merely skilful conjecture; see § 2.

^b i.e., to be well-counselled, to know what steps to take: cf. § 4.

^c The antecedent of 'which' is probably not 'the end' but 'what is expedient as a means to the end,' since it is indicated below that Prudence deals with means, not ends. The difference therefore between Deliberative Excellence and Prudence seems to be that the former is the intellectual quality displayed in the process of correctly investigating a problem of conduct, the latter the more permanent and fixed quality of the mind possessing and contemplating the results of such investigations. Or perhaps more strictly

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. ix. 5—x. 2

then, which leads one to arrive at the right conclusion, but not on the right grounds, is still not Deliberative Excellence.

6 Again, one man may arrive at the right conclusion by prolonged deliberation, while another may do so quickly. The former case also then does not amount to Deliberative Excellence; this is correctness of deliberation as regards what is advantageous, arriving at the right conclusion on the right grounds at the right time.^a

7 Again, a man can be said to have deliberated well ^b either generally, or in reference to a particular end. Deliberative Excellence in general is therefore that which leads to correct results with reference to the end in general, while correctness of deliberation with a view to some particular end is Deliberative Excellence of some special kind.

If therefore to have deliberated well is a characteristic of prudent men, Deliberative Excellence must be correctness of deliberation with regard to what is expedient as a means to the end, a true conception of which ^c constitutes Prudence.

x Understanding, or Good Understanding, the ^{(2) Under-}standing.
quality in virtue of which we call men 'persons of understanding' or 'of good understanding,' is not the same thing as Scientific Knowledge in general (nor yet is it the same as Opinion, for in that case everybody would have understanding), nor is it any one of the particular sciences, as medicine is the science of what pertains to health and geometry
2 the science concerned with magnitudes. For Understanding does not deal with the things that exist

both these qualities are included in Prudence, of which Deliberative Excellence is therefore one aspect or species.

ARISTOTLE

ἡ σύνεσις ἐστὶν οὔτε περὶ τῶν γιγνομένων ὁτουοῦν, ἀλλὰ περὶ ὧν ἀπορήσειεν ἂν τις καὶ βουλευσάιτο. διὸ περὶ τὰ αὐτὰ μὲν τῇ φρονήσει ἐστίν, οὐκ ἔστι δὲ ταὐτὸ σύνεσις καὶ φρόνησις· ἡ μὲν γὰρ φρόνησις ἐπιτακτική ἐστὶν (τί γὰρ δεῖ πράττειν ἢ μή, τὸ τέλος αὐτῆς ἐστίν), ἡ δὲ σύνεσις κριτική μόνον.¹⁰ (ταὐτὸ γὰρ σύνεσις καὶ εὐσυνεσία καὶ συνετοὶ³ καὶ εὐσύνετοι.) ἔστι δὴ² οὔτε τὸ ἔχειν τὴν φρόνησιν οὔτε τὸ λαμβάνειν ἢ σύνεσις, ἀλλ' ὥσπερ τὸ μαρτάνειν λέγεται ξυνιέναι, ὅταν χρῆται τῇ ἐπιστήμῃ, οὕτως ἐν τῷ χρῆσθαι τῇ δόξῃ ἐπὶ³ τὸ κρίνειν περὶ τούτων περὶ ὧν ἡ φρόνησις¹⁵ ἐστὶν, ἄλλου λέγοντος, καὶ κρίνειν καλῶς (τὸ⁴ γὰρ εὖ τῷ καλῶς ταύτόν). καὶ ἐντεῦθεν ἐλήλυθε τοῦνομα ἢ σύνεσις, καθ' ἣν εὐσύνετοι, ἐκ τῆς ἐν τῷ μαρτάνειν· λέγομεν γὰρ τὸ μαρτάνειν συνιέναι πολλάκις.

xi Ἡ δὲ καλουμένη γνώμη, καθ' ἣν εὐγνώμονας⁴ καὶ ἔχειν φάμεν <συν>γνώμην,⁵ ἢ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς²⁰ ἐστὶ κρίσις ὀρθή. σημεῖον δέ· τὸν γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ μάλιστα φάμεν εἶναι συγγνωμονικόν, καὶ ἐπιεικὲς

¹ καὶ γὰρ οἱ L^b.

² δὴ Susemihl: δέ.

³ ἐπὶ secl. Thurot.

⁴ εὐγνώμονας L^bΓ: συγγνώμονας K^b.

⁵ συγγνώμην Richards: γνώμην.

^a This parenthesis would come better in the first section, after the words 'of good understanding.' It merely points out that the qualification 'good' need not be repeated.

^b μαρτάνειν is idiomatically used of understanding what another person says.

^c The writer here strains the meaning of words by connecting under one sense (1) γνώμη, judgement in general or good judgement in particular, and its derivatives (2) εὐγνώμων, 'well-judging' in the sense of considerate and

for ever and are immutable, nor yet with all of the things that come into existence, but with those about which one may be in doubt and may deliberate. Hence it is concerned with the same objects as Prudence. Understanding is not however the same thing as Prudence; for Prudence issues commands, since its end is a statement of what we ought to do or not to do, whereas Understanding merely makes judgements. (For Understanding is the same as Good Understanding; a 'man of understanding' means a man of good understanding.)^a

3 Thus Understanding does not mean either the possession or the acquisition of Prudence; but when we employ the faculty of Opinion to *judge* what another person says about matters that are in the sphere of Prudence, we are said to *understand* (that is, to judge rightly, for *right* judgement is the same as *good* understanding), in the same way as *learning* a thing is termed *understanding* it when we are
4 employing the faculty of Scientific Knowledge. In fact, the use of the term Understanding to denote the quality that makes men 'persons of good understanding' is derived from understanding as shown in learning; in fact we often use 'to learn' in the sense of 'to understand.'^b

xi The quality termed Consideration,^c in virtue of which men are said to be considerate, or to show consideration for others (forgiveness), is the faculty of judging correctly what is equitable. This is indicated by our saying that the equitable man is specially considerate for others (forgiving), and that it is equitable to show consideration for others

(3) Consideration or Judgement.

kindly, and (3) *συγγνώμη*, literally 'judgement with' or on the side of others, and hence, sympathy, lenience, forgiveness.

ARISTOTLE

τὸ ἔχειν περὶ ἓνα συγγνώμην· ἡ δὲ συγγνώμη γνώμη ἐστὶ κριτικὴ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς ὀρθή· ὀρθή δ' ἡ τοῦ ἀληθοῦς.

- 2 Εἰσὶ δὲ πᾶσαι αἱ ἔξεις¹ εὐλόγως εἰς ταὐτὸ ²⁵ τείνουσαι· λέγομεν γὰρ γνώμην καὶ σύνεσιν καὶ φρόνησιν καὶ νοῦν ἐπὶ τοὺς αὐτοὺς ἐπιφέροντες γνώμην ἔχειν καὶ νοῦν ἤδη, καὶ φρονίμους καὶ συνετούς. πᾶσαι γὰρ αἱ δυνάμεις αὗται τῶν ἐσχάτων εἰσὶ καὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστον, καὶ ἐν μὲν τῷ κριτικὸς εἶναι περὶ ὧν ὁ φρόνιμος, συνετὸς ³⁰ καὶ εὐγνώμων ἢ συγγνώμων· τὰ γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ κοινὰ τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἀπάντων ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ πρὸς ³ ἄλλον, ἔστι δὲ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα καὶ τῶν ἐσχάτων ἅπαντα τὰ πρακτά (καὶ γὰρ τὸν φρόνιμον δεῖ γινώσκειν αὐτά), καὶ ἡ σύνεσις καὶ ἡ γνώμη περὶ ⁴ τὰ πρακτά, ταῦτα δ' ἔσχατα. καὶ ὁ νοῦς τῶν ³⁵ ἐσχάτων ἐπ' ἀμφοτέρω· καὶ γὰρ τῶν πρώτων ὄρων καὶ τῶν ἐσχάτων νοῦς ἐστὶ καὶ οὐ λόγος· ^{1143 b} καὶ ὁ μὲν κατὰ τὰς ἀποδείξεις τῶν ἀκινήτων ὄρων καὶ πρώτων, ὁ δ' ἐν ταῖς πρακτικαῖς τοῦ

¹ ἔξεις αὗται Ar.

^a i.e., 'have reached years of discretion'; cf. § 6 and viii. xii. 2.

^b This has been proved for 'understanding' and 'the sensible man' in c. x.; it is extended to 'considerateness' in the words that follow: considerateness judges correctly what is equitable, equity is an element in all virtuous conduct towards others, and all virtuous conduct is determined by Prudence.

^c i.e., the possessors of each of the moral virtues.

^d See c. viii. 9.

^e The substantive to be understood may be προτάσεις, 'propositions'; but the reference seems to be not to the practical syllogism in the ordinary sense (see vii. iii. 9),

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. xi. 1-4

(forgiveness) in certain cases ; but consideration for others is that consideration which judges rightly what is equitable, judging *rightly* meaning judging what is *truly* equitable.

- 2 All these qualities, it is reasonable to say, refer to the same thing ; indeed we attribute Considerateness, Understanding, Prudence, and Intelligence to the same persons when we say of people that they ' are old enough to show consideration and intelligence,' ^a and are prudent and understanding persons. For all these faculties deal with ultimate and particular things ; and a man has understanding and is considerate, or considerate for others, when he is a good judge of the matters in regard to which Prudence is displayed ^b ; because equitable actions are common to all good men ^c in their behaviour towards
- 3 others, while on the other hand all matters of conduct belong to the class of particular and ultimate things (since the prudent man admittedly has to take cognizance of these things), and Understanding and Consideration deal with matters of conduct, which
- 4 are ultimate. Also Intelligence apprehends the ultimates in both aspects—since ultimates as well as primary definitions ^d are grasped by Intelligence and not reached by reasoning : in demonstrations, Intelligence apprehends the immutable and primary definitions ; in practical inferences, ^e it apprehends

Examination of Prudence concluded : its relation to Intelligence.

but to the establishment of ethical ἀρχαί by induction, which is the proper method of Ethics (i. iv. 5-7). This induction is conceived as a syllogism (*cf. An. Pr.* ii. xxiii.): Actions A, B, C . . . are desirable ; Actions A, B, C . . . possess the quality Z ; therefore all actions possessing the quality Z are desirable. Here both the major and the minor premise are sets of particular propositions intuitively seen to be true : νοῦς is τῶν ἐσχάτων ἐπ' ἀμφοτέρεα.

ARISTOTLE

ἐσχάτου καὶ ἐνδεχομένου καὶ τῆς ἐτέρας προ-
 τάσεως· ἀρχαὶ γὰρ τοῦ οὗ ἐνεκα αὐται· ἐκ τῶν
 καθ' ἕκαστα γὰρ τὰ¹ καθόλου· τούτων οὖν ἔχειν 5
 δεῖ αἰσθῆσιν, αὕτη δ' ἐστὶ νοῦς. διὸ καὶ φυσικὰ
 δοκεῖ εἶναι ταῦτα, καὶ φύσει σοφὸς μὲν οὐδεὶς,
 6 γνῶμην δ' ἔχειν καὶ σύνεσιν καὶ νοῦν. σῆμειον
 δ' ὅτι καὶ ταῖς ἡλικίαις οἰόμεθα ἀκολουθεῖν, καὶ
 ἦδε ἡ ἡλικία νοῦν ἔχει καὶ γνῶμην, ὡς τῆς φύσεως
 αἰτίας οὔσης. [διὸ καὶ ἀρχὴ καὶ τέλος νοῦς· ἐκ 10
 τούτων γὰρ αἱ ἀποδείξεις καὶ περὶ τούτων.]²
 ὥστε δεῖ προσέχειν τῶν ἐμπείρων καὶ πρε-
 σβυτέρων ἢ φρονίμων³ ταῖς ἀναποδείκτοις φάσεσι
 καὶ δόξαις οὐχ ἥττον τῶν ἀποδείξεων· διὰ γὰρ
 τὸ ἔχειν ἐκ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ὄμμα ὁρῶσιν ὀρθῶς.⁴
 7 τί μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις καὶ ἡ σοφία, καὶ περὶ 15
 τίνα ἑκατέρα τυγχάνει οὔσα, καὶ ὅτι ἄλλου τῆς
 ψυχῆς μορίου ἀρετὴ ἑκατέρα, εἴρηται.
 xii Διαπορήσειε δ' ἂν τις περὶ αὐτῶν τί χρήσιμοί
 εἰσιν. ἡ μὲν γὰρ σοφία οὐδὲν θεωρεῖ ἐξ ὧν ἐσται
 εὐδαίμων ἄνθρωπος (οὐδεμιᾶς γὰρ ἐστι γενέσεως), 20
 ἡ δὲ φρόνησις τοῦτο μὲν ἔχει, ἀλλὰ τίνος ἐνεκα δεῖ
 αὐτῆς; εἴπερ ἡ μὲν φρόνησις ἐστὶν περὶ⁵ τὰ

¹ τὸ L^bΓ.² Susemihl.³ ἡ φρονίμων secl. Burnet.⁴ ὀρθῶς L^b: ἀρχὰς K^bΓ.⁵ περὶ L^b: ἡ περὶ.

* Here the intuitive element in Prudence, as well as in Wisdom (cc. v., vi.), is termed Intelligence: at c. viii. 9 it was called merely Prudence, in contrast with Intelligence, which was limited to intuition of the first principles of science.

^b This sentence seems irrelevant to the context.

the ultimate and contingent fact, and the minor premise, since these are the first principles from which the end is inferred, as general rules are based on particular cases; hence we must have perception of particulars, and this immediate perception is Intelligence.^a

- 5 This is why it is thought that these qualities are a natural gift, and that a man is considerate, understanding and intelligent by nature, though no one
6 is a wise man by nature. That this is so is indicated by our thinking of them as going with certain ages: we say that at such and such an age a man must have got intelligence and considerateness, which implies that they come by nature.

[Hence Intelligence is both a beginning and an end, for these things are both the starting-point and the subject matter of demonstration.]^b

Consequently the unproved assertions and opinions of experienced and elderly people, or of prudent men,^c are as much deserving of attention as those which they support by proof; for experience has given them an eye for things, and so they see correctly.

- 7 We have now discussed the nature and respective spheres of Prudence and Wisdom, and have shown that each is the virtue of a different part of the soul.
- xii But the further question may be raised, What is the use of these intellectual virtues? Wisdom does not consider the means to human happiness at all, for it does not ask how anything comes into existence. Prudence, it must be granted, does do this; but what do we need it for? seeing that it studies that

Wisdom and Prudence the two Intellectual Virtues. Relation of the Intellectual Virtues to Happiness.

^c This addition is suspicious: no one can become prudent merely by getting old (Burnet). ~

ARISTOTLE

δίκαια καὶ καλὰ καὶ ἀγαθὰ ἀνθρώπῳ, ταῦτα δ'
 ἐστὶν ἃ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ ἐστὶν ἀνδρὸς πράττειν, οὐδὲν
 δὲ πρακτικώτεροι τῷ εἰδέναι αὐτὰ ἐσμεν, εἴπερ
 ἕξεις αἱ ἀρεταὶ εἰσιν, ὥσπερ οὐδὲ τὰ¹ ὑγιεινὰ²⁵
 οὐδὲ τὰ εὐεκτικά, ὅσα μὴ τῷ ποιεῖν ἀλλὰ τῷ
 ἀπὸ τῆς ἕξεως εἶναι λέγεται· οὐθὲν γὰρ πράκτι-
 κώτεροι τῷ ἔχειν τὴν ἰατρικὴν καὶ γυμναστικὴν
 2 ἐσμεν. εἰ δὲ μὴ τούτων χάριν χρήσιμον² ῥητέον³
 ἀλλὰ τοῦ γίνεσθαι, τοῖς οὖσι σπουδαίοις οὐθὲν
 ἂν εἴη χρήσιμος, ἔτι δ' οὐδὲ τοῖς μὴ [ἔχ]οῦσιν·⁴ 30
 οὐθὲν γὰρ διοίσει αὐτοὺς ἔχειν ἢ ἄλλοις ἔχουσι
 πείθεσθαι, ἱκανῶς τ' ἔχοι ἂν ἡμῖν ὥσπερ καὶ περὶ
 τὴν ὑγίειαν· βουλόμενοι γὰρ ὑγιαίνειν ὅμως οὐ
 3 μανθάνομεν ἰατρικὴν. πρὸς δὲ τούτοις ἄτοπον
 ἂν εἶναι δόξειεν, εἰ χείρων τῆς σοφίας οὐσα
 κυριωτέρα αὐτῆς ἔσται· ἡ γὰρ ποιοῦσα ἄρχει³⁵
 καὶ ἐπιτάττει περὶ ἕκαστον. περὶ δὲ τούτων
 λεκτέον· νῦν μὲν γὰρ ἡπόρηται περὶ αὐτῶν μόνον.
 4 πρῶτον μὲν οὖν λέγωμεν⁵ ὅτι καθ' αὐτὰς ἀναγ- 1144:
 καῖον αἰρετὰς αὐτὰς εἶναι, ἀρετάς γ' οὐσας
 ἑκατέραν ἑκατέρου τοῦ μορίου, καὶ εἰ μὴ ποιοῦσι
 5 μηδὲν μηδετέρα αὐτῶν. ἔπειτα καὶ ποιοῦσι μὲν,
 οὐχ ὥς ἰατρικὴ δὲ ὑγίειαν, ἀλλ' ὥς ἡ ὑγίεια,
 οὕτως ἡ σοφία εὐδαιμονίαν· μέρος γὰρ οὐσα τῆς 5

¹ <τῷ> τὰ Ramsauer.

³ θετέον L^bG.

⁵ λέγωμεν K^b: λέγομεν.

² χρήσιμον Richards: φρόνιμον.

⁴ οὖσιν Argyropylos: ἔχουσιν.

^a See c. xiii. 8, where it is implied that Prudence stands in the same relation to Wisdom as medicine to health: it provides the conditions for its development.

which is just and noble and good for man, but these are the things that a good man does by nature. Knowing about them does not make us any more capable of doing them, since the virtues are qualities of character ; just as is the case with the knowledge of what is healthy and vigorous—using these words to mean not productive of health and vigour but resulting from them : we are not rendered any more capable of healthy and vigorous action by knowing the science of medicine or of physical training.

- 2 If on the other hand we are to say that Prudence is useful not in helping us to act virtuously but in helping us to become virtuous, then it is of no use to those who are virtuous already. Nor is it of any use either to those who are not, since we may just as well take the advice of others who possess Prudence as possess Prudence ourselves. We may be content to do as we do in regard to our health ; we want to be healthy, yet we do not learn medicine.

- 3 Moreover it would seem strange if Prudence, which is inferior to Wisdom, is nevertheless to have greater authority than Wisdom : yet the faculty that creates a thing ^a governs and gives orders to it.

Relation of
Prudence to
Wisdom.

Let us now therefore discuss these difficulties, which so far have only been stated.

- 4 First then let us assert that Wisdom and Prudence, being as they are the virtues of the two parts of the intellect respectively, are necessarily desirable in themselves, even if neither produces any effect.
- 5 Secondly, they do in fact produce an effect : Wisdom produces Happiness, not in the sense in which medicine produces health, but in the sense in which healthiness is the cause of health. For

ARISTOTLE

ὅλης ἀρετῆς τῷ ἔχουσιν ποιεῖ καὶ τῷ ἐνεργεῖν
 6 εὐδαίμονα. ἔτι τὸ ἔργον ἀποτελεῖται κατὰ τὴν
 φρόνησιν καὶ τὴν ἠθικὴν ἀρετὴν· ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἀρετὴ
 τὸν σκοπὸν ποιεῖ ὀρθόν, ἡ δὲ φρόνησις τὰ πρὸς
 τοῦτον. (τοῦ δὲ τετάρτου μορίου τῆς ψυχῆς
 οὐκ ἔστιν ἀρετὴ τοιαύτη, τοῦ θρεπτικοῦ· οὐθέν 10
 7 γὰρ ἐπ' αὐτῷ πράττειν ἢ μὴ πράττειν.) περὶ δὲ
 τοῦ μηθὲν εἶναι πρακτικωτέρους διὰ τὴν φρόνησιν
 τῶν καλῶν καὶ δικαίων, μικρὸν ἄνωθεν ἀρκτέον,
 λαβόντας ἀρχὴν ταύτην. ὥσπερ γὰρ καὶ τὰ
 δίκαια λέγομεν πράττοντάς τινας οὕτω δικαίους
 εἶναι (οἷον τοὺς τὰ ὑπὸ τῶν νόμων τεταγμένα 15
 ποιοῦντας ἢ ἄκοντας ἢ δι' ἄγνοιαν ἢ δι' ἕτερόν
 τι καὶ μὴ δι' αὐτά, καίτοι πράττουσί γε ἅ δέ
 καὶ ὅσα χρὴ τὸν σπουδαῖον), οὕτως, ὥς ἔοικεν,
 ἔστι τὸ πῶς¹ ἔχοντα πράττειν ἕκαστα ὥστ' εἶναι
 ἀγαθόν, λέγω δ' οἷον διὰ προαίρεσιν καὶ αὐτῶν
 8 ἕνεκα τῶν πραττομένων. τὴν μὲν οὖν προαίρεσιν 20
 ὀρθὴν ποιεῖ ἡ ἀρετὴ, τὸ δ' ὅσα ἐκείνης ἕνεκα
 πέφυκε πράττεσθαι² <πράττειν>³ οὐκ ἔστι τῆς
 ἀρετῆς ἀλλ' ἑτέρας δυνάμεως. λεκτέον δ' ἐπι-
 9 στήσασι σαφέστερον περὶ αὐτῶν. ἔστι δὴ τις
 δύναμις ἣν καλοῦσι δεινότητα· αὕτη δ' ἔστι
 τοιαύτη ὥστε τὰ πρὸς τὸν ὑποτεθέντα σκοπὸν 25

¹ πῶς: οὕτως vel οὕτω πως Richards.

² πράττεσθαι πέφυκε L^b.

³ <πράττειν> ed.

^a The other three are the scientific, calculative, and appetitive parts, see c. i. 5, 6, whose virtues have now been considered in Books II.-VI. Sensation is here omitted, since it is not peculiar to man: cf. i. vii. 12.

^b Digestion and growth function automatically, not voluntarily; so they form no part of conduct.

^c i.e., Moral Virtue.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VI. xii. 5-9

Wisdom is a part of Virtue as a whole, and therefore by its possession, or rather by its exercise, renders a man happy.

- 6 Also Prudence as well as Moral Virtue determines the complete performance of man's proper function : Prudence
and Moral
Virtue.
Virtue ensures the rightness of the end we aim at, Prudence ensures the rightness of the means we adopt to gain that end.

(The fourth part ^a of the soul on the other hand, the nutritive faculty, has no virtue contributing to the proper function of man, since it has no power to act or not to act.^b)

- 7 But we must go a little deeper into the objection that Prudence does not render men more capable of performing noble and just actions. Let us start with the following consideration. As some people, we maintain, perform just acts and yet are not just men (for instance, those who do what the law enjoins but do it unwillingly, or in ignorance, or for some ulterior object, and not for the sake of the actions themselves, although they are as a matter of fact doing what they ought to do and all that a good man should), so, it appears, there is a certain state of mind in which a man may do these various acts with the result that he really is a good man : I mean when he does them from choice, and for the sake of
8 the acts themselves. Now rightness in our choice of an end is secured by Virtue ^c ; but to do the actions that must in the nature of things be done in order to attain the end we have chosen, is not a matter for Virtue but for a different faculty.

We must dwell on this point to make it more clear.

- 9 There is a certain faculty called Cleverness, which Cleverness
or Ability.
is the capacity for doing the things aforesaid that con-

ARISTOTLE

συντείνοντα δύνασθαι ταῦτα πράττειν καὶ τυγ-
 χάνειν αὐτοῦ.¹ ἂν μὲν οὖν ὁ σκοπὸς ἦ καλός,
 ἐπαινετὴ ἐστίν, ἂν δὲ φαῦλος, πανουργία· διὸ
 καὶ τοὺς φρονίμους δεινοὺς καὶ <τοὺς>² πανούργους
 10 φαμέν εἶναι. ἔστι δ' ἡ φρόνησις οὐχ ἡ δύναμις,³
 ἀλλ' οὐκ ἄνευ τῆς δυνάμεως ταύτης. ἡ δ' ἔξις
 τῷ ὁμματι τούτῳ γίνεται τῆς ψυχῆς οὐκ ἄνευ³⁰
 ἀρετῆς, ὡς εἴρηται τε καὶ ἔστι δῆλον· οἱ γὰρ
 συλλογισμοὶ τῶν πρακτῶν ἀρχὴν ἔχοντές εἰσιν,
 ἐπειδὴ τοιόνδε τὸ τέλος καὶ τὸ ἄριστον (ὅτιδῆποτε
 ὄν· ἔστω γὰρ λόγου χάριν τὸ τυχόν)· τοῦτο δ'
 εἰ μὴ τῷ ἀγαθῷ οὐ φαίνεται· διαστρέφει γὰρ
 ἡ μοχθηρία καὶ διαψεύδεσθαι ποιεῖ περὶ τὰς³⁵
 πρακτικὰς ἀρχάς. ὥστε φανερόν ὅτι ἀδύνατον
 φρόνιμον εἶναι μὴ ὄντα ἀγαθόν.

xiii Σκεπτέον δὴ πάλιν καὶ περὶ ἀρετῆς· καὶ γὰρ ἡ¹¹⁴⁴
 ἀρετὴ παραπλησίως ἔχει ὡς ἡ φρόνησις πρὸς τὴν
 δεινότητα· οὐ ταῦτό μὲν, ὅμοιον δέ· οὕτω καὶ ἡ
 φυσικὴ ἀρετὴ πρὸς τὴν κυρίαν. πᾶσι γὰρ δοκεῖ
 ἕκαστα τῶν ἡθῶν ὑπάρχειν φύσει πῶς· καὶ γὰρ⁵
 δίκαιοι καὶ σωφρονικοὶ καὶ ἀνδρεῖοι καὶ τᾶλλα
 ἔχομεν εὐθὺς ἐκ γενετῆς· ἀλλ' ὅμως ζητοῦμεν⁴ ἕτερόν
 τι τὸ κυρίως ἀγαθόν καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα ἄλλον τρόπον
 ὑπάρχειν· καὶ γὰρ παισὶ καὶ θηρίοις αἱ φυσικαὶ
 ὑπάρχουσιν ἔξεις, ἀλλ' ἄνευ νοῦ βλαβεραὶ φαίνονται

¹ αὐτοῦ Bywater: αὐτῶν.

² <τοὺς> Klein.

³ δύναμις: δεινότης M^b, δύναμις <αὐτῇ> ? ed. (αὐτῇ ἡ δύναμις,
 ἡ δεινότης Hel.).

⁴ ἡγούμεθ' Rassow.

duce to the aim we propose, and so attaining that aim. If the aim is noble, this is a praiseworthy faculty : if base, it is mere knavery ; this is how we come to speak of both prudent men and knaves as clever.

- 10 Now this faculty is not identical with Prudence, but Prudence implies it. But that eye of the soul of which we spoke^a cannot acquire the quality of Prudence without possessing Virtue. This we have said before, and it is manifestly true. For deductive inferences about matters of conduct always have a major premise of the form ' Since the End or Supreme Good is so and so ' (whatever it may be, since we may take it as anything we like for the sake of the argument) ; but the Supreme Good only appears good to the good man : vice perverts the mind and causes it to hold false views about the first principles of conduct. Hence it is clear that we cannot be prudent without being good.

- xiii We have therefore also to reconsider the nature of Virtue. The fact is that the case of Virtue is closely analogous to that of Prudence in relation to Cleverness. Prudence and Cleverness are not the same, but they are similar ; and natural virtue is related in the same way to Virtue in the true sense. All are agreed that the various moral qualities are in a sense bestowed by nature : we are just, and capable of temperance, and brave, and possessed of the other virtues from the moment of our birth. But nevertheless we expect to find that true goodness is something different, and that the virtues in the true sense come to belong to us in another way. For even children and wild animals possess the natural dispositions, yet without Intelligence these may manifestly be harmful. This at all events

Prudence
and Moral
Virtue *etd.*

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οὔσαι. πλὴν τοσοῦτον ἔοικεν ὀραῖσθαι, ὅτι ὥσπερ 10
 σώματι ἰσχυρῶ ἄνευ ὀψεως κινουμένῳ συμβαίνει
 σφάλλεσθαι ἰσχυρῶς διὰ τὸ μὴ ἔχειν ὄψιν,¹ οὕτω
 2 καὶ ἐνταῦθα· ἐὰν δὲ λάβῃ νοῦν, ἐν τῷ πράττειν
 διαφέρει, ἢ δ' ἕξις ὁμοία οὔσα τότε ἔσται κυρίως
 ἀρετή. ὥστε καθάπερ ἐπὶ τοῦ δοξαστικοῦ δύο
 ἐστὶν εἶδη, δεινότης καὶ φρόνησις, οὕτω καὶ ἐπὶ 15
 τοῦ ἠθικοῦ δύο ἐστί, τὸ μὲν ἀρετὴ φυσικὴ τὸ δ'
 ἢ κυρία, καὶ τούτων ἢ κυρία οὐ γίνεται ἄνευ
 3 φρονήσεως. διόπερ τινές φασι πάσας τὰς ἀρετὰς
 φρονήσεις εἶναι, καὶ Σωκράτης τῇ μὲν ὀρθῶς
 ἐζήτει τῇ δ' ἡμάρτανεν· ὅτι μὲν γὰρ φρονήσεις
 ὤετο εἶναι πάσας τὰς ἀρετάς, ἡμάρτανεν, ὅτι δ' 20
 4 οὐκ ἄνευ φρονήσεως, καλῶς ἔλεγεν. σημεῖον δέ·
 καὶ γὰρ νῦν πάντες, ὅταν ὀρίζωνται τὴν ἀρετὴν,
 προστιθέασι, τὴν ἕξιν εἰπόντες καὶ πρὸς αὐτὴν ἐστι,
 τὴν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον· ὀρθὸς δ' ὁ κατὰ τὴν
 φρόνησιν. εἰκόασι δὲ μαντεύεσθαι πως ἅπαντες
 ὅτι ἡ τοιαύτη ἕξις ἀρετὴ ἐστίν, ἢ κατὰ τὴν 25
 5 φρόνησιν. δεῖ δὲ μικρὸν μεταβῆναι². οὐ γὰρ
 μόνον ἢ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, ἀλλ' ἢ μετὰ τοῦ
 ὀρθοῦ λόγου ἕξις ἀρετὴ ἐστίν· ὀρθὸς δὲ λόγος
 περὶ τῶν τοιούτων ἢ φρόνησις ἐστίν. Σωκράτης
 μὲν οὖν λόγους τὰς ἀρετὰς ὤετο εἶναι (ἐπιστήμας

¹ διὰ . . . ὄψιν secl. Ramsauer.

² μεταθεῖναι Coraes.

^a νοῦς here means φρόνησις as a whole : see xi. 4, note ^a.

^b See note on c. v. 8.

^c See the definition of Moral Virtue, II. vi. 15.

^d i.e., prudence is the knowledge of right principle, the presence of the ὀρθὸς λόγος in the ψυχὴ of the φρόνιμος (see II. ii. 2, vi. 15).

appears to be a matter of observation, that just as a man of powerful frame who has lost his sight meets with heavy falls when he moves about, because he cannot see, so it also happens in the moral sphere ;
 2 whereas if a man of good natural disposition acquires Intelligence,^a then he excels in conduct, and the disposition which previously only resembled Virtue, will now be Virtue in the true sense. Hence just as with the faculty of forming opinions ^b there are two qualities, Cleverness and Prudence, so also in the moral part of the soul there are two qualities, natural virtue and true Virtue ; and true Virtue
 3 cannot exist without Prudence. Hence some people maintain that all the virtues are forms of Prudence ; and Socrates' line of enquiry was right in one way, though wrong in another ; he was mistaken in thinking that all the virtues are forms of Prudence, but right in saying that they cannot exist without
 4 Prudence. A proof of this is that everyone, even at the present day, in defining Virtue,^c after saying that it is a disposition and specifying the things with which it is concerned, adds that it is a disposition determined by the right principle ; and the right principle is the principle determined by Prudence. It appears therefore that everybody in some sense divines that Virtue is a disposition of this nature,
 5 namely regulated by Prudence. This formula however requires a slight modification. Virtue is not merely a disposition conforming to right principle, but one co-operating with right principle ; and Prudence is right principle ^d in matters of conduct. Socrates then thought that the virtues *are* principles, for he said that they are all of them forms of know-

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6 γὰρ εἶναι πάσας), ἡμεῖς δὲ μετὰ λόγου. δῆλον³⁰
οὖν ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων ὅτι οὐχ οἷόν τε ἀγαθὸν εἶναι
κυρίως ἄνευ φρονήσεως, οὐδὲ φρόνιμον ἄνευ τῆς
ἠθικῆς ἀρετῆς. (ἀλλὰ καὶ ὁ λόγος ταύτῃ λύοιτ'
ἂν, ὡς διαλεχθείη τις ἂν ὅτι χωρίζονται ἀλλήλων
αἱ ἀρεταί, οὐ γὰρ ὁ αὐτὸς εὐφύεστατος πρὸς
ἀπάσας, ὥστε τὴν μὲν ἤδη τὴν δ' οὐπω εἰληφώς³⁵
ἔσται. τοῦτο γὰρ κατὰ μὲν τὰς φυσικὰς ἀρετὰς
ἐνδέχεται, καθ' ἃς δὲ ἀπλῶς λέγεται ἀγαθός,^{1145 a}
οὐκ ἐνδέχεται· ἅμα γὰρ τῇ φρονήσει μιᾷ ὑπ-
7 ἀρχούσῃ¹ πᾶσαι ὑπάρξουσιν.) δῆλον δὴ,² καὶ εἰ μὴ
πρακτικὴ ἦν, ὅτι ἔδει ἂν αὐτῆς διὰ τὸ τοῦ³ μορίου
ἀρετὴν εἶναι, καὶ ὅτι οὐκ ἔσται ἡ προαίρεσις
ὀρθή ἄνευ φρονήσεως οὐδ' ἄνευ ἀρετῆς· ἡ μὲν⁵
γὰρ τὸ τέλος ἡ δὲ τὰ πρὸς τὸ τέλος ποιεῖ πράττειν.
8 ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ κυρία γ' ἐστὶ τῆς σοφίας οὐδὲ τοῦ
βελτίονος μορίου, ὥσπερ οὐδὲ τῆς ὑγιείας ἡ
ιατρικὴ· οὐ γὰρ χρῆται αὐτῇ, ἀλλ' ὁρᾷ ὅπως
γένηται· ἐκείνης οὖν ἕνεκα ἐπιτάττει, ἀλλ' οὐκ
ἐκείνη. ἔτι ὁμοιον καὶ εἴ τις τὴν πολιτικὴν¹⁰
φαίη ἄρχειν τῶν θεῶν, ὅτι ἐπιτάττει περὶ πάντα
τὰ ἐν τῇ πόλει.

¹ οὐσση Lb.² δὴ ed. : δέ.³ τοῦ <ἐτέρου> Spengel.

^a The writer recapitulates the solution reached in the last two chapters of the difficulty stated in c. xii. 1.

^b The text should probably be emended 'of one of the two parts of the intellect': see c. xii. 4.

^c At c. xii. 6 Aristotle says more precisely that Virtue 'makes the End right,' i.e., makes us choose the right End; strictly speaking, to *achieve* the End requires also Prudence in the choice of the right means.

^d This is the solution of the difficulty stated in c. xii. 3.

^e Including religious observances.

ledge. We on the other hand say that the virtues *co-operate with* principle.

- 6 These considerations therefore show that it is not possible to be good in the true sense without Prudence, nor to be prudent without Moral Virtue.

(Moreover, this might supply an answer to the dialectical argument that might be put forward to prove that the virtues can exist in isolation from each other, on the ground that the same man does not possess the greatest natural capacity for all of them, so that he may have already attained one when he has not yet attained another. In regard to the natural virtues this is possible; but it is not possible in regard to those virtues which entitle a man to be called good without qualification. For if a man have the one virtue of Prudence he will also have all the Moral Virtues together with it.)

- 7 It is therefore clear ^a that, even if Prudence had no bearing on conduct, it would still be needed, because it is the virtue of ^b that part of the intellect to which it belongs; and also that our choice of actions will not be right without Prudence any more than without Moral Virtue, since, while Moral Virtue enables us to achieve ^c the end, Prudence makes us adopt the right means to the end.

Prudence
inferior to
Wisdom.

- 8 But nevertheless it is not really the case that Prudence is in authority ^d over Wisdom, or over the higher part of the intellect, any more than medical science is in authority over health. Medical science does not control health, but studies how to procure it; hence it issues orders *in the interests of* health, but not *to* health. And again, one might as well say that Political Science governs the gods, because it gives orders about everything ^e in the State.

Η

i Μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα λεκτέον, ἄλλην ποιησαμένους ¹⁵
 ἀρχήν, ὅτι τῶν περὶ τὰ ἥθη. φευκτῶν τρία ἔστιν
 εἶδη, κακία ἀκρασία θηριότης. τὰ δ' ἐναντία
 τοῖς μὲν δυσὶ δῆλα, τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἀρετὴν τὸ δ'
 ἐγκράτειαν καλοῦμεν· πρὸς δὲ τὴν θηριότητα
 μάλιστ' ἂν ἀρμόττοι λέγειν τὴν ὑπὲρ ἡμᾶς ἀρετὴν,
 ἡρωϊκὴν τινα καὶ θείαν, ὥσπερ Ὅμηρος περὶ ²⁰
 <τοῦ>¹ Ἑκτορος πεποιήκε λέγοντα τὸν Πρίαμον
 ὅτι σφόδρα ἦν ἀγαθός,

οὐδὲ ἑώκει

ἀνδρός γε θνητοῦ πάις ἔμμεναι ἀλλὰ θεοῦ.

2 ὥστ' εἰ, καθάπερ φασίν, ἐξ ἀνθρώπων γίνονται
 θεοὶ δι' ἀρετῆς ὑπερβολήν, τοιαύτη τις ἂν εἴη
 δῆλον ὅτι ἡ τῇ θηριώδει² ἀντιτιθεμένη ἑξίς· καὶ ²⁵
 γὰρ ὥσπερ οὐδὲ θηρίου ἔστι κακία οὐδ' ἀρετή,
 οὕτως οὐδὲ θεοῦ, ἀλλ' ἡ μὲν τιμιώτερον ἀρετῆς,
 3 ἡ δ' ἑτερόν τι γένος κακίας. ἐπεὶ δὲ σπάνιον
 καὶ τὸ θεῖον ἄνδρα εἶναι, καθάπερ οἱ Λάκωνες
 εἰώθασι προσαγορεύειν, ὅταν³ ἀγασθῶσι σφόδρα

¹ Bywater.

² θηριωδία (i.e. -ία) L^bΓ.

³ <οὐ> ὅταν Bywater.

^a Or Brutality: the two English words have acquired slightly different shades of meaning, which are combined in the Greek.

BOOK VII

i LET us next begin a fresh part of the subject by laying down that the states of moral character to be avoided are of three kinds—Vice, Unrestraint, and Bestiality.^a The opposite dispositions in the case of two of the three are obvious : one we call Virtue, the other Self-restraint. As the opposite of Bestiality it will be most suitable to speak of Superhuman Virtue, or goodness on a heroic or divine scale ; just as Homer^b has represented Priam as saying of Hector, on account of his surpassing valour—

cc. i-x.
Relation of
Intellect
and Desire :
Weakness of
Will.
c 1. Moral
states
between
Virtue and
Vice : Self-
restraint
and Endur-
ance, Lack
of Self-re-
straint and
Softness.

nor seemed to be
The son of mortal man, but of a god.

2 Hence if, as men say, surpassing virtue changes men into gods, the disposition opposed to Bestiality will clearly be some quality more than human ; for there is no such thing as Virtue in the case of a god, any more than there is Vice or Virtue in the case of a beast : divine goodness is something more exalted than Virtue, and bestial badness is different in kind from Vice. And inasmuch as it is rare for a man to be divine, in the sense in which that word is commonly used by the Lacedaemonians as a term of extreme

^b *Il.* xxiv. 258. The preceding words are, ' Hector, who was a god.'

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- του (σεῖος ἀνὴρ¹ φασιν), οὕτω καὶ ὁ θηριώδης ³⁰
 ἐν τοῖς ἀνθρώποις σπάνιος· μάλιστα δ' ἐν τοῖς
 βαρβάροις ἐστίν, γίνεται δ' ἓνα καὶ διὰ νόσους
 καὶ πηρώσεις. καὶ τοὺς διὰ κακίαν δὲ τῶν
 ἀνθρώπων ὑπερβάλλοντας οὕτως ἐπιδυσφημοῦμεν.
- 4 ἀλλὰ περὶ μὲν τῆς τοιαύτης διαθέσεως ὕστερον
 ποιητέον τινὰ μνείαν, περὶ δὲ κακίας εἴρηται ³⁵
 πρότερον· περὶ δὲ ἀκρασίας καὶ μαλακίας καὶ
 τρυφῆς λεκτέον, καὶ περὶ ἐγκρατείας καὶ καρ-
 τερίας· οὔτε γὰρ ὡς περὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ἕξεων τῇ ^{1145 b}
 ἀρετῇ καὶ τῇ μοχθηρίᾳ ἐκατέρας² αὐτῶν ὑπο-
 5 ληπτέον, οὔθ' ὡς ἕτερον γένος. δεῖ δ', ὥσπερ
 ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων, τιθέντας τὰ φαινόμενα καὶ πρῶτον
 διαπορήσαντας οὕτω δεικνύναι μάλιστα μὲν πάντα
 τὰ ἔνδοξα περὶ ταῦτα τὰ πάθη, εἰ δὲ μή, τὰ ⁵
 πλεῖστα καὶ κυριώτατα· εἰ γὰρ λύηται τε τὰ
 δυσχερῆ καὶ καταλείπεται τὰ ἔνδοξα, δεδειγμένον
 ἂν εἶη ἱκανῶς.
- 6 Δοκεῖ δὴ ἢ τε ἐγκράτεια καὶ καρτερία τῶν
 σπουδαίων καὶ [τῶν]³ ἐπαινετῶν εἶναι, ἢ δ'
 ἀκρασία τε καὶ μαλακία τῶν φαύλων τε καὶ ¹⁰
 ψεκτῶν.—καὶ ὁ αὐτὸς ἐγκρατὴς καὶ ἐμμενετικὸς
 τῷ λογισμῷ, καὶ ἀκρατὴς καὶ ἐκστατικὸς τοῦ
 λογισμοῦ.—καὶ ὁ μὲν ἀκρατὴς εἰδὼς ὅτι φαῦλα⁴

¹ ἀνὴρ ed. : ἀνὴρ (φασιν <οὗτος> Coraes).

² ἐκατέρας Richards : ἐκατέραν.

³ [τῶν] Bywater: om. L^b.

⁴ φαῦλα <φαῦλα> ? Rouse.

^a Lit. 'for those who surpass (the rest of) men in Vice' (i.e., human, not bestial wickedness).

^b Aristotle holds (I. viii. 7) that the opinions of the mass of mankind, and of philosophers, on matters of conduct are likely to be substantially true; although being stated from different points of view, and sometimes in ambiguous

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VII. i. 3-6

admiration—'Yon mon's divine,' they say—, so a bestial character is rare among human beings; it is found most frequently among barbarians, and some cases also occur as a result of disease or arrested development. We sometimes also use 'bestial' as a term of opprobrium for a surpassing degree of human vice.^a

4 But the nature of the bestial disposition will have to be touched on later; and of Vice we have spoken already. We must however discuss Unrestraint and Softness or Luxury, and also Self-restraint and Endurance. Neither of these two classes of character is to be conceived as identical with Virtue and Vice, nor yet as different in kind from them.

5 Our proper course with this subject as with others will be to present the various views about it, and then, after first reviewing the difficulties they involve, finally to establish if possible all or, if not all, the greater part and the most important of the opinions generally held with respect to these states of mind; since if the discrepancies can be solved, and a residuum of current opinion left standing, the true view will have been sufficiently established.^b

6 Now the following opinions are held: (a) that Self-restraint and Endurance are good and praiseworthy dispositions, Unrestraint and Softness bad and blameworthy; (b) that the self-restrained man is the man who abides by the results of his calculations, the unrestrained, one who readily abandons the conclusion he has reached; (c) that the un-
Current
Opinions
stated.
 language, they often seem mutually contradictory. The business of Ethics is to state them clearly, examine their apparent contradictions, discard such parts of them as really refute each other, and elicit the common residuum of truth: see *infra*, c. ii. 12.

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πράττειν¹ διὰ πάθος, ὁ δ' ἐγκρατὴς εἰδὼς ὅτι
 φαῦλαι αἱ ἐπιθυμίαι οὐκ ἀκολουθεῖν² διὰ τὸν
 λόγον.—καὶ τὸν σώφρονα μὲν ἐγκρατῇ καὶ καρ- 15
 τερικόν, τὸν δὲ τοιοῦτον οἱ μὲν πάντα σώφρονα
 οἱ δ' οὐ, καὶ τὸν ἀκόλαστον ἀκρατῇ καὶ τὸν
 ἀκρατῇ ἀκόλαστον συγκεχυμένως, οἱ δ' ἑτέρους
 7 εἶναί φασιν.—τὸν δὲ φρόνιμον ὅτε μὲν οὐ φασιν
 ἐνδέχεσθαι εἶναι ἀκρατῇ, ὅτε δ' ἐνίους φρονίμους
 ὄντας καὶ δεινούς ἀκρατεῖς εἶναι.—ἔτι ἀκρατεῖς
 λέγονται καὶ θυμοῦ καὶ τιμῆς καὶ κέρδους. τὰ 20
 μὲν οὖν λεγόμενα ταῦτ' ἐστίν.

- ii Ἀπορήσειε δ' ἂν τις πῶς ὑπολαμβάνων ὀρθῶς
 ἀκρατεύεται τις. ἐπιστάμενον μὲν³ οὖν οὐ φασί
 τινες οἷόν τε εἶναι· δεινὸν γὰρ ἐπιστήμης ἐνούσης,
 ὥς ᾤετο Σωκράτης, ἄλλο τι κρατεῖν καὶ περιέλλκειν
 αὐτήν⁴ ὥσπερ ἀνδράποδον. Σωκράτης μὲν γὰρ 25
 ὅλως ἐμάχετο πρὸς τὸν λόγον ὥς οὐκ οὔσης
 ἀκрасίας· οὐθένα γὰρ ὑπολαμβάνοντα πράττειν
 2 παρὰ τὸ βέλτιστον, ἀλλὰ δι' ἄγνοιαν. οὗτος μὲν
 οὖν ὁ λόγος ἀμφισβητεῖ τοῖς φαινομένοις ἐναργῶς,
 καὶ δέον⁵ ζητεῖν περὶ τὸ πάθος, εἰ δι' ἄγνοιαν,
 τίς· ὁ τρόπος γίνεται⁵ τῆς ἀγνοίας· ὅτι γὰρ οὐκ 30
 οἰεταί γε ὁ ἀκρατεύόμενος πρὶν ἐν τῷ πάθει

¹ πράττειν Richards: πράττει.

² ἀκολουθεῖν Richards: ἀκολουθεῖ.

³ μὲν om. K^b.

⁴ αὐτήν K^b: αὐτὸν.

⁵ δέον <γίνεται> et τρόπος [γίνεται] ? Bywater.

restrained man does things that he knows to be evil, under the influence of passion, whereas the self-restrained man, knowing that his desires are evil, refuses to follow them on principle; (*d*) that the temperate man is always self-restrained and enduring; but that the converse is invariably the case some deny, although others affirm it: the latter identify the unrestrained with the profligate and the profligate with the unrestrained promiscuously, the
7 former distinguish between them. (*e*) Sometimes it is said that the prudent man cannot be unrestrained, sometimes that some prudent and clever men are unrestrained. (*f*) Again, men are spoken of as unrestrained in anger, and in the pursuit of honour and of gain. These then are the opinions advanced.

ii The difficulties that may be raised are the following. (*c*) How can a man fail in self-restraint when believing correctly that what he does is wrong? Difficulties arising out of these opinions.

Some people say that he cannot do so when he *knows* the act to be wrong; since, as Socrates held, it would be strange if, when a man possessed Knowledge, some other thing should overpower it, and drag it about like a slave. In fact Socrates used to combat the view^a altogether, maintaining that there is no such thing as Unrestraint, since no one, he held, acts contrary to what is best, believing what he does to be bad, but only through ignorance.
2 Now this theory is manifestly at variance with plain facts; and we ought to investigate the state of mind in question more closely. If failure of self-restraint is caused by ignorance, we must examine what sort of ignorance it is. For it is clear that the man who fails in self-restraint does not think the action right before he comes under the influence of

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3 γενέσθαι, φανερόν.—εἰσὶ δέ τινες οἳ τὰ μὲν συγ-
χωροῦσι τὰ δ' οὐ· τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστήμης μηθὲν
εἶναι κρεῖττον ἐμολογοῦσι, τὸ δὲ μηθένα πράττειν
παρὰ τὸ δόξαν βέλτιον οὐχ ὁμολογοῦσι, καὶ διὰ
τοῦτο τὸν ἀκρατῇ φασὶν οὐκ ἐπιστήμην ἔχοντα 35
4 κρατεῖσθαι ὑπὸ τῶν ἡδονῶν ἀλλὰ δόξαν. ἀλλὰ
μὴν εἶγε δόξα καὶ μὴ ἐπιστήμη, μὴδ' ἰσχυρὰ
ὑπόληψις ἢ ἀντιτείνουσα ἀλλ' ἡρεμαία, καθάπερ 1146 ε
ἐν τοῖς διστάζουσι, συγγνώμη τῷ μὴ μένειν ἐν
αὐταῖς πρὸς ἐπιθυμίας ἰσχυράς· τῇ δὲ μοχθηρίᾳ
οὐ συγγνώμη, οὐδὲ τῶν ἄλλων οὐδενὶ τῶν ψεκτῶν.
5 —φρονήσεως ἄρα ἀντιτεινούσης; αὕτη γὰρ ἰσχυ- 5
ρότατον. ἀλλ' ἄτοπον· ἔσται γὰρ ὁ αὐτὸς ἅμα
φρόνιμος καὶ ἀκρατής, φήσκει δ' οὐδ' ἂν εἰς
φρονίμου εἶναι τὸ πράττειν ἐκόντα τὰ φαυλότατα.
πρὸς δὲ τούτοις δέδεικται πρότερον ὅτι πρακτικός
τε¹ ὁ φρόνιμος (τῶν γὰρ ἐσχάτων τις²) καὶ τὰς
6 ἄλλας ἔχων ἀρετάς.—ἔτι εἰ μὲν ἐν τῷ ἐπιθυμίας 10
ἔχειν ἰσχυρὰς καὶ φαύλας ὁ ἐγκρατής, οὐκ ἔσται
ὁ σώφρων ἐγκρατής οὐδ' ὁ ἐγκρατής σώφρων·
οὔτε γὰρ τὸ ἄγαν σώφρωνος οὔτε τὸ φαύλας
ἔχειν. ἀλλὰ μὴν δεῖ γε· εἰ μὲν γὰρ χρησταὶ αἱ
ἐπιθυμίαι, φαύλη ἢ κωλύουσα ἕξις μὴ ἀκολουθεῖν,
ὥσθ' ἢ ἐγκράτεια οὐ πᾶσα σπουδαία· εἰ δ' ἀσθενεῖς 15
καὶ μὴ φαῦλαι, οὐθὲν σεμνόν, οὐδ' εἰ φαῦλαι καὶ

¹ τε M^b: γε.² τις: ἐστι? Susemihl, τις <ἕξις> vel ἡ ἕξις Richards.^a Cf. vi. vii. 7, xii. 10.^c

- 3 passion.—But some thinkers accept the doctrine in a modified form. They allow that nothing is more powerful than knowledge, but they do not allow that no one acts contrary to what he *opines* to be the better course; and they therefore maintain that the unrestrained man when he succumbs to the temptations of pleasure possesses not Knowledge
- 4 but only Opinion. And yet if it is really Opinion and not Knowledge—not a strong belief that offered resistance but only a weak one (like that of persons in two minds about something)—, we could forgive a man for not keeping to his opinions in opposition to strong desires; but we do not forgive vice, nor any
- 5 other blameworthy quality.—(e) Is it then when desire is opposed by Prudence that we blame a man for yielding? for Prudence is extremely strong. But this is strange, for it means that the same person can be at once prudent and unrestrained; yet no one whatsoever would maintain that the prudent man is capable of doing voluntarily the basest actions. And furthermore it has already been shown ^a that Prudence displays itself in action (for it is concerned with ultimate particulars), and implies the possession of the other Virtues as well.
- 6 Again (d) if Self-restraint implies having strong and evil desires, the temperate man cannot be self-restrained, nor the self-restrained man temperate; for the temperate man does not have excessive or evil desires. But a self-restrained man must necessarily have strong and evil desires; since if a man's desires are good, the disposition that prevents him from obeying them will be evil, and so Self-restraint will not always be good; while if his desires are weak and not evil, there is nothing to be proud of

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- 7 ἀσθενεῖς, οὐθὲν μέγα.—ἔτι εἰ πάσῃ δόξῃ ἐμμενετικὸν ποιεῖ ἢ ἐγκράτεια, φαύλη, οἷον εἰ καὶ τῇ ψευδεῖ· καὶ εἰ πάσης δόξης ἢ ἀκρασία ἐκστατικόν, ἔσται τις σπουδαία ἀκρασία, οἷον ὁ Σοφοκλέους Νεοπτόλεμος ἐν τῷ Φιλοκτῆτῃ· ἐπαινετὸς 20 γὰρ οὐκ ἐμμένων οἷς ἐπείσθη ὑπὸ τοῦ Ὀδυσσεύς
- 8 διὰ τὸ λυπεῖσθαι ψευδόμενος.—ἔτι ὁ σοφιστικὸς λόγος [ψευδόμενος]¹ ἀπορία (διὰ γὰρ τὸ παράδοξα βούλεσθαι ἐλέγχειν ἵνα δεινοὶ ᾧσιν, ὅταν ἐπιτύχωσιν,² ὁ γενόμενος συλλογισμὸς ἀπορία γίνεται· δέδεταί γὰρ ἡ διάνοια, ὅταν μένειν μὲν μὴ βούληται 25 διὰ τὸ μὴ ἀρέσκειν τὸ συμπερανθέν, προῖέναι δὲ μὴ δυνῆται διὰ τὸ λῦσαι μὴ ἔχειν τὸν λόγον).
- 9 συμβαίνει δὴ³ ἔκ τινος λόγου ἢ ἀφροσύνη μετὰ ἀκρασίας ἀρετῇ· τὰναντία γὰρ πράττει ὧν ὑπολαμβάνει διὰ τὴν ἀκρασίαν, ὑπολαμβάνει δὲ τὰγαθὰ κακὰ εἶναι καὶ οὐ δεῖν πράττειν, ὥστε 30
- 10 τὰγαθὰ καὶ οὐ τὰ κακὰ πράξει.—ἔτι ὁ τῷ πεπεῖσθαι πράττων καὶ διώκων τὰ ἡδέα καὶ προαιρούμενος βελτίων ἂν δόξειεν τοῦ μὴ διὰ λογισμὸν ἀλλὰ δι' ἀκρασίαν· εὐϊατότερος γὰρ διὰ τὸ μεταπεισθῆναι ἂν. ὁ δ' ἀκρατὴς ἔνοχος τῇ παροιμίᾳ ἐν ᾗ φαμέν 35

¹ Coraes.

² ἐντύχωσι? Burnet.

³ δὴ Bywater: δὲ.

^a See further, c. ix. 4.

^b Sc., because he is foolish.

^c i.e., a profligate. This is another sophistic paradox based on the contradiction between (1) the identification of the unrestrained man with the profligate, and (2) the view (§ 6) that the former acts contrary to his deliberate conviction (so Burnet).

in resisting them ; nor is it anything remarkable if they are evil and weak.

7 Again (*a, b*) if Self-restraint makes a man steadfast in *all* his opinions, it may be bad, namely, if it makes him persist even in a false opinion. And if Unrestraint makes him liable to abandon *any* opinion, in some cases Unrestraint will be good. Take the instance of Neoptolemus^a in the *Philoctetes* of Sophocles. Neoptolemus abandons a resolution that he has been persuaded by Odysseus to adopt, because of the pain that it gives him to tell a lie : in this case inconstancy is praiseworthy.

8 Again (*a, c*) there is the difficulty raised by the argument of the sophists. The sophists wish to show their cleverness by entrapping their adversary into a paradox, and when they are successful, the resultant chain of reasoning ends in a deadlock : the mind is fettered, being unwilling to stand still because it cannot approve the conclusion reached, yet unable to go forward because it cannot untie
9 the knot of the argument. Now one of their arguments proves that Folly combined with Unrestraint is a virtue. It runs as follows : if a man is foolish and also unrestrained, owing to his unrestraint he does the opposite of what he believes that he ought to do ; but he believes^b that good things are bad, and that he ought not to do them ; therefore he will do good things and not bad ones.

10 Again (*b, d*) one who does and pursues what is pleasant from conviction and choice,^c might be held to be a better man than one who acts in the same way not from calculation but from unrestraint, because he is more easy to cure, since he may be persuaded to alter his conviction ; whereas the unrestrained man

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- “ὅταν τὸ ὕδωρ πνίγη, τί δεῖ ἐπιπίνειν;” εἰ μὲν γὰρ ἐπέπειστο¹ ἂ πράττει, μεταπεισθεὶς ἂν 1146
ἐπαύσατο· νῦν δὲ² πεπεισμένος οὐδὲν ἤττον ἄλλα³
- 11 πράττει.—ἔτι εἰ περὶ πάντα ἀκρασία ἐστὶ καὶ ἐγκράτεια, τίς ὁ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής; οὐθεὶς γὰρ ἀπάσας ἔχει τὰς ἀκρασίας, φαμέν δ’ εἶναί τινας 5 ἀπλῶς.
- 12 Αἱ μὲν οὖν ἀπορίαι τοιαῦταί τινες συμβαίνουσιν, τούτων δὲ τὰ μὲν ἀνελεῖν δεῖ τὰ δὲ καταλιπεῖν· ἡ γὰρ λύσις τῆς ἀπορίας εὕρεσίς ἐστιν.
- iii Πρῶτον μὲν οὖν σκεπτέον πότερον εἰδότες ἢ οὐ, καὶ πῶς εἰδότες· εἴτα περὶ ποῖα τὸν ἀκρατῆ καὶ τὸν ἐγκρατῆ θετέον, λέγω δὲ πότερον περὶ 10 πᾶσαν ἡδονὴν καὶ λύπην ἢ περὶ τινας ἀφωρισμένας· καὶ τὸν ἐγκρατῆ καὶ τὸν καρτερικόν, πότερον ὁ αὐτὸς ἢ ἕτερός ἐστιν· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ τῶν ἄλλων ὅσα συγγενῇ τῆς θεωρίας ἐστὶ 2 ταύτης. ἔστι δ’ ἀρχὴ τῆς σκέψεως, πότερον ὁ ἐγκρατής καὶ ὁ ἀκρατής εἰσι τῷ περὶ αἰ ἢ τῷ 15 πῶς⁴ ἔχοντες τὴν διαφοράν, λέγω δὲ πότερον τῷ περὶ ταδὶ εἶναι μόνον ἀκρατής ὁ ἀκρατής, ἢ οὐ

¹ μὴ ἐπέπειστο L^b.

² δὲ οὐ (vel μὴ) Γ, δὲ <ἄλλα> Ramsauer, Bywater.

³ ἄλλα secl. Bywater.

⁴ ὡς Bywater.

^a A variant οὐ πεπεισμένος . . . [ἀλλὰ] gives ‘but as it is he is convinced it is wrong but nevertheless does it.’

^b See c. i. 5, note.

^c This question is not pursued below; indeed the contents of the following chapters are correctly outlined in § 1, and § 2 is superfluous.

^d Not the difference between the two, since of course they are concerned with the same objects, but the difference between both of them and other similar characters; see c. i. 4.

is condemned by the proverb that says 'when water chokes you, what are you to drink to wash it down?' Had he been convinced that what he does is right, a change of conviction might have caused him to desist; but as it is he is convinced that he ought to do one thing and nevertheless does another thing.^a

11 Again (*f*) if Self-restraint and Unrestraint can be displayed with reference to anything, what is the meaning of the epithet 'unrestrained' without qualification? No one has every form of unrestraint, yet we speak of some men as simply 'unrestrained.'

12 Such, more or less, are the difficulties that arise. Part of the conflicting opinions we have to clear out of the way, but part to leave standing; for to solve a difficulty is to find the answer to a problem.^b

iii We have then to consider, first (i) whether men fail in self-restraint knowing what they do is wrong, or not knowing, and if knowing, knowing in what sense; and next (ii) what are to be set down as the objects with which Self-restraint and Unrestraint are concerned: I mean, are they concerned with pleasure and pain of all sorts, or only with certain special pleasures and pains? and (iii) is Self-restraint the same as Endurance or distinct from it? and so on with (iv) the other questions akin to this subject.

Self-restraint and Unrestraint to be examined under four heads (cc. iii.-x).

2 A starting-point for our investigation is to ask ^c whether the *differentia*^d of the self-restrained man and the unrestrained is constituted by their objects, or by their dispositions: I mean, whether a man is called unrestrained solely because he fails to restrain himself with reference to certain things, or rather because he has a certain disposition, or rather

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ἀλλὰ τῷ ὧς, ἢ οὐ ἀλλ' ἐξ ἀμφοῦν· ἔπειτ' εἰ περὶ
πάντ' ἐστὶν ἡ ἀκρασία καὶ ἡ ἐγκράτεια ἢ οὐ·
οὔτε γὰρ περὶ πάντ' ἐστὶν ὁ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής, ²⁰
ἀλλὰ περὶ ἅπερ ὁ ἀκόλαστος, οὔτε τῷ πρὸς
ταῦτα ἀπλῶς ἔχειν (ταὐτὸ γὰρ ἂν ᾗν τῇ ἀκολασίᾳ),
ἀλλὰ τῷ ὧδι ἔχειν. ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἄγεται προαιρού-
μενος, νομίζων αἰεὶ δεῖν τὸ παρὸν ἢδὺ διώκειν·
ὁ δ' οὐκ οἶεται μὲν, διώκει δέ.

- 3 Περὶ μὲν οὖν τοῦ δόξαν ἀληθῆ ἀλλὰ μὴ ἐπι-
στήμην εἶναι παρ' ἣν ἀκρατεύονται, οὐθὲν διαφέρει ²⁵
πρὸς τὸν λόγον. ἔνιοι γὰρ τῶν δοξαζόντων οὐ
4 διστάζουσιν, ἀλλ' οἷονται ἀκριβῶς εἰδέναι· εἰ
οὖν διὰ τὸ ἡρέμα πιστεύειν οἱ δοξάζοντες μᾶλλον
τῶν ἐπισταμένων παρὰ τὴν ὑπόληψιν πράξουσιν,
οὐθὲν διοίσει ἐπιστήμη δόξης· ἔνιοι γὰρ πιστεύου-
σιν οὐδὲν ἥττον οἷς δοξάζουσιν ἢ ἕτεροι οἷς ³⁰
5 ἐπίστανται· δηλοῖ δ' Ἡράκλειτος. ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ
διχῶς λέγομεν τὸ ἐπίστασθαι (καὶ γὰρ ὁ ἔχων
μὲν οὐ χρώμενος δὲ τῇ ἐπιστήμῃ καὶ ὁ χρώμενος
λέγεται ἐπίστασθαι), διοίσει τὸ ἔχοντα μὲν μὴ
θεωροῦντα δὲ καὶ τὸ θεωροῦντα¹ ἃ μὴ δεῖ πράττειν

¹ καὶ τὸ θεωροῦντα om. ΓΜ^b.

^a This seems to refer to the dogmatic tone of Heracleitus's teaching in general.

for both reasons combined. A second question is, can Self-restraint and Unrestraint be displayed in regard to everything, or not? When a man is said to be 'unrestrained' without further qualification, it does not mean that he is so in relation to everything, but to those things in regard to which a man can be profligate; and also it does not mean merely that he is concerned with these things (for in that case Unrestraint would be the same thing as Profligacy), but that he is concerned with them in a particular manner. The profligate yields to his appetites from choice, considering that he ought always to pursue the pleasure that offers, whereas the man of defective self-restraint does not think so, but pursues it all the same.

- 3 (i) Now the suggestion that it is not Knowledge, but True Opinion, against which unrestrained men act, is of no importance for our argument. Some men hold their opinions with absolute certainty, and take
 4 them for positive knowledge; so that if weakness of conviction be the criterion for deciding that men who act against their conception of what is right must be said to *opine* rather than to *know* the right, there will really be no difference in this respect between Opinion and Knowledge; since some men are just as firmly convinced of what they opine as others are of what they know: witness Heracleitus.^a
- 5 (1) But the word *know* is used in two senses. A man who has knowledge but is not exercising it is said to know, and so is a man who is actually exercising his knowledge. It will make a difference whether a man does wrong having the knowledge that it is wrong but not consciously thinking of his knowledge, or with the knowledge consciously present to his mind. The latter

(1) Does he who fails in self-restraint err knowing the right?

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[τοῦ ἔχοντα καὶ θεωροῦντα].¹ τοῦτο γὰρ δοκεῖ 35
 6 δεινόν, ἀλλ' οὐκ εἰ μὴ θεωρῶν.—ἔτι ἐπεὶ δύο
 τρόποι τῶν προφάσεων, ἔχοντα μὲν ἀμφοτέρως 1147:
 οὐθὲν κωλύει πράττειν παρὰ τὴν ἐπιστήμην,
 χρώμενον μέντοι τῇ καθόλου ἀλλὰ μὴ τῇ κατὰ
 μέρος· πρακτὰ γὰρ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα. διαφέρει
 δὲ καὶ τὸ καθόλου· τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἐφ' ἑαυτοῦ τὸ δ' 5
 ἐπὶ τοῦ πράγματός ἐστιν, οἷον ὅτι παντὶ ἀνθρώπῳ
 συμφέρει τὰ ξηρά, καὶ ὅτι αὐτὸς² ἄνθρωπος, ἢ
 ὅτι ξηρὸν τὸ τοιόνδε· ἀλλ' εἰ τόδε τοιόνδε, ἢ οὐκ
 ἔχει ἢ οὐκ ἐνεργεῖ. κατὰ γε³ δὴ τούτους διοίσει
 τοὺς τρόπους ἀμήχανον ὅσον, ὥστε δοκεῖν οὕτω
 μὲν εἰδέναι μηθὲν ἄτοπον, ἄλλως δὲ θαυμαστόν.— 10
 7 ἔτι τὸ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην ἄλλον τρόπον τῶν
 νῦν ρηθέντων ὑπάρχει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις· ἐν τῷ γὰρ
 ἔχειν μὲν μὴ χρησθαι δὲ διαφέρουσιν ὁρῶμεν τὴν
 ἕξιν, ὥστε καὶ ἔχειν πως καὶ μὴ ἔχειν, οἷον τὸν
 καθεύδοντα καὶ μαινόμενον καὶ οἰνωμένον. ἀλλὰ

¹ Bywater.

² αὐτὸς Rassow: ὁ αὐτὸς pr. K^b, οὗτος Γ, αὐτὸς οὗτος L^b.

³ γε Coraes: τε.

^a The major premise of a practical syllogism is universal, a general rule; the minor is particular, the application of the rule to the case in hand. The next sentence points out that this application really requires two syllogisms; in the first, the personal term of the major premise is predicated in the minor of the particular person concerned (Dry food is good for all men: I am a man: therefore dry food is good for me); in the second, the other universal term is predicated in the minor of a particular thing about which the person is deliberating (Dry food is good for me: this stale loaf is dry food: therefore this stale loaf is good for me). It is the minor premise of the second syllogism, viz. the application of the general rule not to himself but to the

would be felt to be surprising ; but it is not surprising that a man should do what he knows to be wrong if he is not conscious of the knowledge at the time.

6 (2) Again, reasoning on matters of conduct employs premises of two forms.^a Now it is quite possible for a man to act against knowledge when he knows both premises but is only exercising his knowledge of the universal premise and not of the particular ; for action has to do with particular things. Moreover, there is a distinction as regards the universal term : one universal is predicated of the man himself, the other of the thing ; for example, he may know and be conscious of the knowledge that dry food is good for every man and that he himself is a man, or even that food of a certain kind is dry, but either not possess or not be actualizing the knowledge whether the particular food before him is food of that kind. Now clearly the distinction between these two ways of knowing will make all the difference in the world. It will not seem at all strange that the unrestrained man should 'know' in one way, but it would be astonishing if he knew in another way.

7 (3) Again, it is possible for men to 'have knowledge' in yet another way besides those just discussed ; for even in the state of having knowledge without exercising it we can observe a distinction : a man may in a sense both have it and not have it ; for instance, when he is asleep, or mad, or drunk.

thing in question, that the unrestrained man seems not to know, or not to think of, at the time.

This illustration is confused in the text by the insertion of another minor premise *ἢ ὅτι ξηρόν τὸ τοιονδε*, 'or that food of a certain kind [*e.g.* stale bread] is dry.' It would have been enough to write *ἀλλ' εἰ τόδε ξηρόν*, 'but whether this [stale loaf] is dry.'

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μὴν οὕτω διατίθενται οἱ ἐν τοῖς πάθεσιν ὄντες· 15
 θυμοὶ γὰρ καὶ ἐπιθυμίαι ἀφροδισίων καὶ ἔνια
 τῶν τοιούτων ἐπιδήλως καὶ τὸ σῶμα μεθιστᾶσιν,
 ἐνίοις δὲ καὶ μανίας ποιοῦσιν. δῆλον οὖν ὅτι
 8 ὁμοίως ἔχειν λεκτέον τοὺς ἀκρατεῖς τούτοις. τὸ
 δὲ λέγειν τοὺς λόγους τοὺς ἀπὸ τῆς ἐπιστήμης
 οὐδὲν σημείον· καὶ γὰρ οἱ ἐν τοῖς πάθεσι τούτοις 20
 ὄντες ἀποδείξεις καὶ ἔπη λέγουσιν Ἐμπεδοκλέους,
 καὶ οἱ πρῶτον μαθόντες¹ συνείρουσι μὲν τοὺς
 λόγους, ἴσασι δ' οὕπω· δεῖ γὰρ συμφυῆναι, τοῦτο²
 δὲ χρόνου δεῖται³. ὥστε καθάπερ τοὺς ὑπο-
 κρινομένους, οὕτως ὑποληπτέον λέγειν καὶ τοὺς
 9 ἀκρατευομένους.—ἔτι καὶ ὧδε φυσικῶς ἂν τις
 ἐπιβλέψειε τὴν αἰτίαν. ἡ μὲν γὰρ καθόλου δόξα, 25
 ἡ δ' ἑτέρα περὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστά ἐστιν, ὡν αἴσθησις
 ἡδὴ κυρία· ὅταν δὲ μία γένηται ἐξ αὐτῶν, ἀνάγκη
 τὸ συμπερανθὲν ἔνθα μὲν φάναι τὴν ψυχὴν, ἐν
 δὲ ταῖς ποιητικαῖς⁴ πράττειν εὐθύς, οἷον, εἰ
 παντὸς γλυκέος γεύεσθαι δεῖ, τουτὶ δὲ γλυκὺ ὡς
 ἔν τι τῶν καθ' ἕκαστον, ἀνάγκη τὸν δυνάμενον 30
 καὶ μὴ κωλυόμενον ἅμα τοῦτο καὶ πράττειν.
 10 ὅταν οὖν ἡ μὲν καθόλου ἐνῇ κωλύουσα γεύεσθαι,
 ἡ δέ, ὅτι πᾶν⁵ γλυκὺ ἡδύ, τουτὶ δὲ γλυκὺ, αὕτη

¹ μαθάνοντες ? Thurot.² τοῦτω L^b.³ δεῖται Γ: δεῖ.⁴ πρακτικαῖς Coraes.⁵ πᾶν τὸ L^b.

^a The reference is to persons of weak will uttering sound moral maxims almost at the very moment of yielding to temptation.

^b Viz., asleep or drunk. It may have been some Falstaff of Attic comedy that quoted the moral maxims of Empedocles in his cups.

^c i.e., in this case, psychologically: lit. 'with reference to its nature.' Cf. viii. i. 6, ix. vii. 2, ix. 7.

But persons under the influence of passion are in the same condition ; for it is evident that anger, sexual desire, and certain other passions, actually alter the state of the body, and in some cases even cause madness. It is clear therefore that we must pronounce the unrestrained to 'have knowledge' only in the same way as men who are asleep or mad or drunk. Their using the language of knowledge ^a is no proof that they possess it. Persons in the states mentioned ^b repeat propositions of geometry and verses of Empedocles ; students who have just begun a subject reel off its formulae, though they do not yet know their meaning, for knowledge has to become part of the tissue of the mind, and this takes time. Hence we must conceive that men who fail in self-restraint talk in the same way as actors speaking a part.

- 9 (4) Again, one may also study the cause of Unrestraint scientifically,^c thus : In a practical syllogism, the major premise is an opinion, while the minor premise deals with particular things, which are the province of perception. Now when the two premises are combined, just as in theoretic reasoning the mind is compelled to *affirm* the resulting conclusion, so in the case of practical premises you are forced at once to *do* it. For example, given the premises 'All sweet things ought to be tasted' and 'Yonder thing is sweet'—a particular instance of the general class—, you are bound, if able and not prevented,
10 immediately to taste the thing. When therefore there is present in the mind on the one hand a universal judgement forbidding you to taste and on the other hand a universal judgement saying 'All sweet things are pleasant,' and a minor premise 'Yonder thing is

- δὲ ἐνεργῇ,¹ τύχη δ' ἐπιθυμία ἐνοῦσα, ἣ μὲν οὖν²
λέγει φεύγειν τοῦτο, ἣ δ' ἐπιθυμία ἄγει (κινεῖν ³⁵
γὰρ ἕκαστον δύναται τῶν μορίων). ὥστε συμβαίνει
ὑπὸ λόγου πως καὶ δόξης ἀκρατεύεσθαι, οὐκ ¹¹⁴⁷ ^b
ἐναντίας δὲ καθ' αὐτήν, ἀλλὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός
- 11 (ἣ γὰρ ἐπιθυμία ἐναντία, ἀλλ' οὐχ ἡ δόξα) τῷ
ὀρθῷ λόγῳ. ὥστε καὶ διὰ τοῦτο τὰ θηρία οὐκ
ἀκρατῇ, ὅτι οὐκ ἔχει τῶν καθόλου ὑπόληψιν, ἀλλὰ ⁵
- 12 τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα φαντασίαν καὶ μνήμην.—πῶς
δὲ λύεται ἡ ἄγνοια καὶ πάλιν γίνεται ἐπιστήμων
ὁ ἀκρατής, ὁ αὐτὸς λόγος καὶ περὶ οἰνωμένου
καὶ καθεύδοντος καὶ οὐκ ἴδιος τούτου τοῦ πάθους,
- 13 ὃν δεῖ παρὰ τῶν φυσιολόγων ἀκούειν.—ἐπεὶ δ'
ἡ τελευταία πρότασις δόξα τε αἰσθητοῦ καὶ κυρία ¹⁰
τῶν πράξεων, ταύτην <δὲ>³ ἣ οὐκ ἔχει ἐν⁴ τῷ
πάθει ὢν, ἣ οὕτως ἔχει ὥς οὐκ ἦν τὸ ἔχειν ἐπί-
στασθαι ἀλλὰ λέγειν ὥσπερ ὁ οἰνωμένος τὰ
Ἐμπεδοκλέους, καὶ διὰ τὸ μὴ καθόλου μηδ'
ἐπιστημονικὸν ὁμοίως εἶναι δοκεῖν τῷ καθόλου
τὸν ἔσχατον ὅρον, καὶ ἔοικεν ὁ ἐξήτει Σωκράτης ¹⁵
- 14 συμβαίνειν· οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι
δοκούσης παρούσης γίνεται τὸ πάθος, οὐδ' αὐτῇ

¹ ἐνεργῇ Richards: ἐνεργεῖ.
³ <δὲ> Ramsauer.

² οὖν om. L^b.
⁴ ὁ ἐν L^b.

^a Cf. c. ii. 1.

^b Here τὸ πάθος means ἀκρατεύεσθαι, cf. ii. 2, iii. 12, iv. 6;
but in the following line (cf. c. ii. 1) it probably means
ἐπιθυμία or θυμός, as iii. 7, v. 5, vii. 8.

- sweet,' and this minor premise is actually operant and when desire is present at the same time, then, though the former universal judgement says 'Avoid that thing,' the desire leads you to it (since desire can put the various parts of the body in motion). Thus, it comes about that when men fail in self-restraint, they act in a sense under the influence of a principle or opinion, but an opinion not in itself but only accidentally opposed to the right principle
- 11 (for it is the desire, and not the opinion, that is really opposed). Hence the lower animals cannot be called unrestrained, if only for the reason that they have no power of forming universal concepts, but only mental images and memories of particular things.
- 12 If we ask how the unrestrained man's ignorance is dissipated and he returns to a state of knowledge, the explanation is the same as in the case of drunkenness and sleep, and is not peculiar to failure of self-restraint. We must go for it to physiology.
- 13 But inasmuch as the last premise, which originates action, is an opinion as to some object of sense, and it is this opinion which the unrestrained man when under the influence of passion either does not possess, or only possesses in a way which as we saw does not amount to knowing it but only makes him repeat it as the drunken man repeats the maxims of Empedocles, and since the ultimate term is not a universal, and is not deemed to be an object of Scientific Knowledge in the same way as a universal term is, we do seem to be led to the conclusion ^a
- 14 which Socrates sought to establish. For the knowledge which is present when failure of self-restraint ^b occurs is not what is held to be Knowledge in the true sense, nor is it true Knowledge which is

περιέλκεται διὰ τὸ πάθος, ἀλλὰ τῆς αἰσθητικῆς.
περὶ μὲν οὖν τοῦ εἰδότα καὶ μὴ, καὶ πῶς εἰδότα
ἐνδέχεται ἀκρατεῦσθαι, τοσαῦτα εἰρήσθω.

- iv Πότερον δ' ἐστὶ τις ἀπλῶς ἀκρατὴς ἢ πάντες ²⁰
κατὰ μέρος, καὶ εἰ ἔστι, περὶ ποῖά ἐστι, λεκτέον
ἐφεξῆς. ὅτι μὲν οὖν περὶ ἡδονὰς καὶ λύπας εἰσὶν
οἱ τ' ἐγκρατεῖς καὶ καρτερικοὶ καὶ οἱ ἀκρατεῖς
² καὶ μαλακοί, φανερόν. ἐπεὶ δ' ἐστὶ τὰ μὲν
ἀναγκαῖα τῶν ποιούντων ἡδονήν, τὰ δ' αἰρετὰ
μὲν καθ' αὐτὰ ἔχοντα δ' ὑπερβολήν, ἀναγκαῖα ²⁵
μὲν τὰ σωματικά (λέγω δὲ τὰ τοιαῦτα, τὰ τε
περὶ τὴν τροφήν καὶ τὴν τῶν ἀφροδισίων χρείαν,
καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα τῶν σωματικῶν περὶ ᾧ τὴν
ἀκολασίαν ἔθεμεν καὶ τὴν σωφροσύνην), τὰ δ'
ἀναγκαῖα μὲν οὐχί, αἰρετὰ δὲ καθ' αὐτά (λέγω δ'
οἷον νίκην τιμὴν πλοῦτον καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα τῶν ³⁰
ἀγαθῶν καὶ ἡδέων). τοὺς μὲν οὖν πρὸς ταῦτα
! παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον ὑπερβάλλοντας τὸν ἐν
αὐτοῖς ἀπλῶς μὲν οὐ λέγομεν ἀκρατεῖς, προσ-
τιθέντες δὲ τὸ¹ χρημάτων ἀκρατεῖς καὶ κέρδους
καὶ τιμῆς καὶ θυμοῦ, ἀπλῶς δ' οὐ, ὥς ἑτέρους
καὶ καθ' ὁμοιότητα λεγομένους—ὥσπερ Ἀνθρωπος ³⁵
ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νικῶν,² ἐκείνῳ γὰρ ὁ κοινὸς λόγος ^{1148 a}

¹ τὸ secl. ? Bywater.

² νικῶν K^b: νενικηκώς.

^a See § 5 note.

^b See III. x.

^c Cf. c. i. 7: θυμός, 'spirit,' aims at victory, and so is brought into this discussion of 'pleasures and desires' (§ 5); but in c. vi. it is contrasted with desire, and its indulgence in the form of anger is seen to be painful rather than pleasant (vi. 4).

^d This seems to be the meaning of the imperfect tenses. An inscription records that a boxer named Ἀνθρωπος won at Olympia in 456 B.C. and the Greek commentators say

dragged about by passion, but knowledge derived from sense-perception.

So much for the question whether failure of self-restraint can go with knowledge or not, and with knowledge in what sense.

(ii) We must next discuss whether any man can be called 'unrestrained' without qualification, or whether it must always be in relation to certain particular things, and if so, to what sort of things. Now it is plain that men are self-restrained and enduring, unrestrained and soft, in regard to
 2 Pleasures and Pains. But the things that give pleasure are of two kinds: some are necessary,^a others are desirable in themselves but admit of excess. The necessary sources of pleasures are those connected with the body: I mean such as the functions of nutrition and sex, in fact those bodily functions which we have indicated^b as the sphere of Profligacy and Temperance. The other sources of pleasure are not necessary, but are desirable in themselves: I mean for example victory, honour, wealth, and the other good and pleasant things of the same sort. Now those who against the right principle within them exceed in regard to the latter class of pleasant things, we do not call unrestrained simply, but with a qualification—unrestrained as to money, gain, honour or anger^c—not merely 'unrestrained'; because we regard them as distinct from the unrestrained in the strict sense, and only so called by analogy, like our familiar example^d of Man the Olympic winner, whose special definition

(ii) The sphere of Self-restraint and Unrestraint the same as that of Temperance and Profligacy, viz., certain bodily pleasures.

that he is referred to here. His name would appear to have been used in the Peripatetic school as an example of the analogical use of words.

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τοῦ ἰδίου μικρῷ διέφερεν, ἀλλ' ὁμως ἕτερος ἦν—
 (σημεῖον δέ· ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἀκρασία ψέγεται οὐχ ὡς
 ἁμαρτία μόνον, ἀλλὰ καὶ ὡς κακία τις, ἡ ἀπλῶς
 3 οὕσα ἢ κατὰ τι μέρος, τούτων δ' οὐθείς). τῶν δέ
 περὶ τὰς σωματικὰς ἀπολαύσεις, περὶ ἃς λέγομεν 5
 τὸν σῶφρονα καὶ ἀκόλαστον, ὃ μὴ τῷ προαιβεῖσθαι
 τῶν τε ἡδέων διώκων τὰς ὑπερβολὰς καὶ¹ τῶν
 λυπηρῶν φεύγων, πείνης καὶ δίψης καὶ ἀλέας καὶ
 ψύχους καὶ πάντων τῶν περὶ ἀφῆν καὶ γεῦσιν,
 ἀλλὰ παρὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν καὶ τὴν διάνοιαν, 10
 ἀκρατὴς λέγεται, οὐ κατὰ πρόσθεσιν, ὅτι περὶ
 4 τάδε, καθάπερ ὀργῆς, ἀλλ' ἀπλῶς μόνον (σημεῖον
 δέ· καὶ γὰρ μαλακοὶ λέγονται περὶ ταύτας, περὶ
 ἐκείνων δ' οὐδεμίαν). καὶ διὰ τοῦτ' εἰς ταῦτόν
 τὸν ἀκρατῆ καὶ τὸν ἀκόλαστον τίθεμεν καὶ
 ἐγκρατῆ καὶ σῶφρονα,² ἀλλ' οὐκ ἐκείνων οὐδένα, 15
 διὰ τὸ περὶ τὰς αὐτάς πως ἡδονὰς καὶ λύπας
 εἶναι· οἱ δ' εἰσὶ μὲν περὶ ταῦτά, ἀλλ' οὐχ ὡσαύτως
 εἰσὶν, ἀλλ' οἱ μὲν προαιροῦνται οἱ δ' οὐ προαιροῦν-
 ται. διὸ μᾶλλον ἀκόλαστον ἂν εἵπομεν ὅστις
 μὴ ἐπιθυμῶν ἢ ἡρέμα διώκει τὰς ὑπερβολὰς³

¹ καὶ <τὰ μέτρια> Rassow.

² καὶ ἐγκρατῆ καὶ σῶφρονα secludenda ? ed.

³ ὑπερβολὰς <τῶν ἡδέων> Rassow.

^{a-i.e.}, it only requires the addition of three words. Strictly speaking, however, it is impossible to define an individual ; moreover, the Olympic victor (a) was a man not merely by analogy but as a member of the species, and (b) was named Man not even by analogy but only homonymously. But a humorous illustration need not be precise.

^b Perhaps Man had some personal peculiarity which somewhat belied his name.

^c Probably this should be amended to ' moderate bodily pains,' cf. § 4.

is not very different ^a from the general definition of 'man,' though nevertheless he is really quite distinct from men in general.^b (That such persons are only called unrestrained by analogy is proved by our blaming unrestraint, whether unqualified or with reference to some particular bodily pleasure, as a vice and not merely an error, whereas we do not regard those unrestrained in regard to money, etc. 3 as guilty of vice.) But of those who exceed in relation to the bodily enjoyments with regard to which we speak of men as temperate or profligate, he who pursues excessive pleasure, and avoids the extremes ^c of bodily pains such as hunger, heat, cold, and the various pains of touch and taste, not from choice but against his own choice and reason, is described as unrestrained not with a qualification—unrestrained as regards these pleasures and pains—as is one who yields to anger, but just simply as 4 unrestrained. (A proof that 'unrestrained' unqualified denotes unrestraint as regards bodily pleasures and pains, is that we speak of men as 'soft' who yield to these, but not those who yield to anger or the like.) And hence we class the unrestrained man with the profligate (and the self-restrained with the temperate)^d, but not those who yield to anger or the like, because Unrestraint and Profligacy are related to the same pleasures and pains. But as a matter of fact, although they are related to the same things, they are not related to them in the same way; the profligate acts from choice, the unrestrained man does not. Hence we should pronounce a man who pursues excessive pleasures and avoids moderate pains when he feels

^a This parenthesis may be an interpolation.

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καὶ φεύγει μετρίας λύπας, ἢ τοῦτον ὅστις διὰ τὸ ἐπιθυμεῖν σφόδρα· τί γὰρ ἂν ἐκεῖνος ποιήσειεν, ²⁰ εἰ προσγένετο ἐπιθυμία νεανική καὶ περὶ τὰς τῶν ἀναγκαίων ἐνδείας λύπη ἰσχυρά;

- 5 Ἐπεὶ δὲ τῶν ἐπιθυμιῶν καὶ τῶν ἡδονῶν αἱ μὲν εἰσι τῶν¹ γένει καλῶν καὶ σπουδαίων (τῶν γὰρ ἡδέων ἓνα φύσει αἰρετά, τὰ δ' ἐναντία τούτων, τὰ δὲ μεταξύ, καθάπερ διείλομεν πρό- ²⁵ τερον) οἷον χρήματα καὶ κέρδος καὶ νίκη καὶ τιμή, πρὸς ἅπαντα δὲ καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα καὶ τὰ μεταξύ οὐ τῷ πάσχειν καὶ ἐπιθυμεῖν καὶ φιλεῖν ψέγονται ἀλλὰ τῷ πῶς καὶ² ὑπερβάλλειν (διὸ ὅσοι μὲν παρὰ τὸν λόγον ἢ κρατοῦνται ἢ διώκουσι τῶν φύσει τι καλῶν καὶ ἀγαθῶν, οἷον οἱ περὶ ³⁰ τιμὴν μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ σπουδάζοντες, ἢ περὶ τέκνα καὶ γονεῖς—καὶ γὰρ ταῦτα τῶν ἀγαθῶν, καὶ ἐπαινοῦνται οἱ περὶ ταῦτα σπουδάζοντες, ἀλλ' ὅμως ἔστι τις ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἐν τούτοις, εἴ τις ὥσπερ ἡ Νιόβη μάχοιτο καὶ πρὸς τοὺς θεοὺς, ἢ ὥσπερ Σάτυρος ὁ φιλοπάτωρ ἐπικαλούμενος περὶ ¹¹⁴⁸ τὸν πατέρα, λίαν γὰρ ἐδόκει μωραίνειν)—μοχθηρία μὲν οὖν οὐδεμία περὶ ταῦτ' ἐστὶ διὰ τὸ

¹ τῶν Wilson : τῷ.

² καὶ om. K^b.

^a See § 2: a third class is now added, pleasures bad in themselves and not only in excess; and the 'necessary' pleasures are now classed as 'intermediate,' neither good nor bad in themselves, though good as a means to life, and bad in excess.

^b This subject is left without its verb, which apparently would be 'are not wicked, nor yet unrestrained in the proper sense.' Though this clause here begins as a parenthesis, it is resumed below at 'well then' as a fresh sentence, which really, however, constitutes the apodosis of the protasis that began at the beginning of the section, 'And inasmuch.'

only weak desires or none at all, to be more profligate than one who does so owing to intense desires ; for what would the former do if he possessed the ardent desires of youth, and felt violent pain when debarred from the ' necessary ' pleasures ?

- 5 And inasmuch as some desires and pleasures relate to things that are noble and good in kind (for some pleasant things are desirable by nature, others the opposite, while others again are neutral—compare the classification we gave above^a): for instance money, gain, victory, honour : and inasmuch as in relation to all these naturally desirable things, as well as to the neutral ones, men are not blamed merely for regarding or desiring or liking them, but for doing so in a certain way, namely to excess (hence those^b who yield to or pursue, contrary to principle, anything naturally noble and good, for example those who care too much for honour, or for their children and their parents—for parents and children are good things and people are praised who care for them, but nevertheless it is possible even in their case to go to excess, by vying even with the gods like Niobe,^c or as Satyrus did,^d who was nicknamed the filial for his devotion to his father, for he was thought to carry it to the point of infatuation—): well then, there cannot be any actual Vice in relation to these things, because, as

^c Niobe vaunted her children as more beautiful than those of Leto.

^d The Greek commentators tell stories of a certain Satyrus who, when his father died, committed suicide for grief. But Heliodorus appears to have read *ἐπικαλούμενος τὸν πατέρα* without *περί*, 'or like Satyrus the Filial invoking his father as a god': there were kings of Bosphorus named Satyrus in the 4th c., and one may have borne the surname Philopator.

εἰρημένον, ὅτι φύσει τῶν αἵρετῶν ἕκαστόν ἐστι δι' αὐτό· φαῦλαι δὲ καὶ φευκταὶ αὐτῶν εἰσὶν αἱ
 6 ὑπερβολαί. ὁμοίως δὲ οὐδὲ ἀκρασία· ἡ γὰρ 5
 ἀκρασία οὐ μόνον φευκτὸν ἀλλὰ καὶ τῶν ψεκτῶν
 ἐστίν· δι' ὁμοιότητα δὲ τοῦ πάθους προσεπιτιθέντες
 τὴν ἀκρασίαν περὶ ἕκαστον λέγουσιν, οἷον κακὸν
 ἱατρὸν καὶ κακὸν ὑποκριτήν, ὃν ἀπλῶς οὐκ ἂν
 εἴποιεν κακόν. ὥσπερ οὖν οὐδ' ἐνταῦθα, διὰ τὸ
 μὴ κακίαν εἶναι ἑκάστην αὐτῶν, ἀλλὰ τῷ ἀνάλογον 10
 ὁμοίαν, οὕτω δῆλον ὅτι καὶ ἐκείνῃ ὑποληπτέον μόνην
 ἀκρασίαν καὶ ἐγκράτειαν εἶναι ἥτις ἐστὶ περὶ
 ταῦτά τῇ σωφροσύνῃ καὶ τῇ ἀκολασίᾳ, περὶ δὲ
 θυμοῦ¹ καθ' ὁμοιότητα λέγομεν· διὸ καὶ προσ-
 τιθέντες ἀκρατῇ θυμοῦ ὥσπερ τιμῆς καὶ κέρδους
 φαμέν.

ν Ἐπεὶ δ' ἐστὶν ἔνια μὲν ἡδέα φύσει, καὶ τούτων 15
 τὰ μὲν ἀπλῶς τὰ δὲ κατὰ γένη καὶ ζώων καὶ
 ἀνθρώπων, τὰ δ' οὐκ ἔστιν ἀλλὰ τὰ μὲν διὰ
 πηρώσεις τὰ δὲ δι' ἔθνη γίνεται, τὰ δὲ διὰ μοχθηρὰς
 φύσεις, ἔστι καὶ περὶ τούτων ἕκαστα παραπλησίας
 2 ἰδεῖν ἕξεις· λέγω δὲ τὰς θηριώδεις, οἷον τὴν 20
 ἄνθρωπον ἣν λέγουσι τὰς κυούσας ἀνασχίζουσιν
 τὰ παιδία κατεσθίειν, ἣ οἷοις χαίρειν φασὶν ἐνίοις
 τῶν ἀπηγριωμένων περὶ τὸν Πόντον, τοὺς μὲν

¹ θυμοῦ K^b: θυμόν.

^a So Peters. Perhaps there is a reference to the Lamia of folk-lore.

has been said, each of them is in itself desirable by nature, although excessive devotion to them is bad and to be avoided. And similarly there cannot be Unrestraint either, since that is not merely to be avoided, but actually blameworthy; though people do use the term in these matters with a qualification—‘unrestraint in’ whatever it may be—because the affection does resemble Unrestraint proper; just as they speak of someone as a bad doctor or bad actor whom they would not call simply ‘bad.’ As therefore we do not call bad doctors and actors bad men, because neither kind of incapacity is actually a vice, but only resembles Vice by analogy, so in the former case it is clear that only self-restraint and lack of restraint in regard to the same things as are the objects of Temperance and Profligacy are to be deemed Self-restraint and Unrestraint proper, and that these terms are applied to anger only by analogy; and so we add a qualification, ‘unrestrained in anger,’ just as we say ‘unrestrained in the pursuit of honour’ or ‘gain.’

(v) Besides those things however which are naturally pleasant, of which some are pleasant generally and others pleasant to particular races of animals and of men, there are other things, not naturally pleasant, which become pleasant either as a result of arrested development or from habit, or in some cases owing to natural depravity. Now corresponding to each of these kinds of unnatural pleasures we may observe a related disposition of character. I mean bestial characters, like the creature in woman’s form^a that is said to rip up pregnant females and devour their offspring, or certain savage tribes on the coasts of the Black Sea, who are alleged to delight in raw

Unnatural pleasures the sphere of Bestiality, not of Unrestraint nor of Vice.

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ὥμοις τοὺς δὲ¹ ἀνθρώπων κρέασιν, τοὺς δὲ τὰ
 παιδία δανείζειν² ἀλλήλοις εἰς εὐωχίαν, ἢ τὸ
 3 περὶ Φάλαριν λεγόμενον. αὐται μὲν θηριώδεις,
 αἱ δὲ διὰ νόσους γίνονται (καὶ διὰ³ μανίαν ἐνίοις,²⁵
 ὥσπερ ὁ τὴν μητέρα καθιερεύσας καὶ φαγών,
 καὶ ὁ τοῦ συνδούλου τὸ ἡπαρ), αἱ δὲ νοσηματώδεις
 [ἦ]⁴ ἐξ ἔθους, οἷον τριχῶν τίλσεις καὶ ὀνύχων
 τρώξεις, ἔτι δ' ἀνθράκων καὶ γῆς, πρὸς δὲ τούτοις
 ἢ τῶν ἀφροδισίων⁵ τοῖς ἄρρεσιν· τοῖς μὲν γὰρ
 φύσει τοῖς δ' ἐξ ἔθους συμβαίνουσιν, οἷον τοῖς³⁰
 4 ὕβριζομένοις ἐκ παίδων. ὅσοις μὲν οὖν φύσις αἰτία,
 τούτους μὲν οὐδεὶς ἂν εἴπειεν ἀκρατεῖς, ὥσπερ
 οὐδὲ τὰς γυναικάς ὅτι οὐκ ὀπνίουσιν ἀλλ' ὀπνίον-
 ται· ὡσαύτως δὲ καὶ ὅσοι⁶ νοσηματωδῶς ἔχουσι
 5 δι' ἔθος. τὸ μὲν οὖν ἔχειν ἕκαστα τούτων ἕξω
 τῶν ὄρων ἐστὶ τῆς κακίας, καθάπερ καὶ ἡ θηριότης·^{1149 a}
 τὸ δ' ἔχοντα κρατεῖν⁸ ἢ κρατεῖσθαι οὐχ ἡ ἀπλή
 ἀκρασία ἀλλ' ἡ καθ' ὁμοιότητα, καθάπερ καὶ τὸν
 περὶ τοὺς θυμοὺς ἔχοντα τοῦτον τὸν τρόπον τοῦ
 πάθους, ἀκρατῇ δ' οὐ λεκτέον. (πᾶσα γὰρ ὑπερ-⁵
 βάλλουσα καὶ ἀφροσύνη καὶ δειλία καὶ ἀκολασία
 καὶ χαλεπότης αἱ μὲν θηριώδεις αἱ δὲ νοσηματώ-
 6 δεις εἰσὶν· ὁ μὲν γὰρ φύσει τοιοῦτος οἷος δεδιέναι
 πάντα, καὶ ψοφήσῃ μῦς, θηριώδη δειλίαν δειλός,

¹ τοὺς δὲ secl. Oncken.

² ἐρανίζειν ? ed.

³ διὰ τε Mb, καὶ διὰ μανίαν Kb.

⁴ [ἦ] om. Kb: ἢ <φύσει ἦ> Rassow.

⁵ ἀφροδισίων <ὀμιλία> vel <συνουσία> Richards.

⁶ ὅσοι Bywater: τοῖς.

⁷ τὸν Kb.

⁸ <μῇ> κρατεῖν Richards.

^a The version follows Williams, and seems to require the emendation given in the critical note. The mss. give 'who lend their children to each other for feasting.'

meat or in human flesh, and others among whom each in turn provides a child for the common banquet^a; 3 or the reported depravity of Phalaris.^b These are instances of Bestiality. Other unnatural propensities are due to disease, and sometimes to insanity, as in the case of the madman that offered up his mother to the gods and partook of the sacrifice, or the one that ate his fellow slave's liver. Other morbid propensities are acquired by habit, for instance, plucking out the hair, biting the nails, eating cinders and earth, and also sexual perversion. These practices result in some cases from natural disposition, and in others from habit, as with those who have been 4 abused from childhood. When nature is responsible, no one would describe such persons as showing Unrestraint, any more than one would apply that term to women because they are passive and not active in sexual intercourse; nor should we class as Unrestraint a morbid state brought about by habitual indulgence.

5 Now these various morbid dispositions in themselves do not fall within the limits of Vice, nor yet does Bestiality; and to conquer or yield to them does not constitute Unrestraint^c in the strict sense, but only the state so called by analogy; just as a man who cannot control his anger must be described as 'unrestrained in' that passion, not 'unrestrained.'

(Indeed folly, cowardice, profligacy, and ill-temper, whenever they run to excess, are either bestial or 6 morbid conditions. One so constituted by nature as to be frightened by everything, even the sound

^b See below, § 7, note.

^c We must understand 'does not constitute *restraint* or *unrestraint*' unless we amend 'and to fail to conquer, or to be conquered by, them does not constitute unrestraint.'

- ὁ δὲ τὴν γαλῆν ἐδεδίει διὰ νόσον· καὶ τῶν ἀφρόνων οἱ μὲν ἐκ φύσεως ἀλόγιστοι καὶ μόνον τῇ αἰσθήσει ¹⁰ ζῶντες θηριώδεις, ὥσπερ ἔνια γένη τῶν πόρρω βαρβάρων, οἱ δὲ διὰ νόσους, οἷον τὰς ἐπιληπτικὰς, ⁷ ἢ μανίας νοσηματώδεις.) τούτων δ' ἔστι μὲν ἔχειν μὲν τινα ἐνίοτε¹ μόνον, μὴ κρατεῖσθαι δέ, λέγω δὲ οἷον εἰ Φάλαρις κατεῖχεν ἐπιθυμῶν παιδίου φαγεῖν ἢ πρὸς ἀφροδισίων ἄτοπον ἡδονήν· ἔστι ¹⁵ ⁸ δὲ καὶ κρατεῖσθαι, μὴ μόνον ἔχειν. ὥσπερ οὖν καὶ μοχθηρία ἢ μὲν κατ' ἀνθρωπον ἀπλῶς λέγεται μοχθηρία, ἢ δὲ κατὰ πρόσθεσιν ὅτι θηριώδης ἢ νοσηματώδης, ἀπλῶς δ' οὐ, τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον δῆλον ὅτι καὶ ἀκρασία ἐστὶν ἢ μὲν θηριώδης ἢ δὲ νοσηματώδης, ἀπλῶς δὲ ἢ κατὰ τὴν ἀνθρωπίνην ²⁰ ἀκολασίαν μόνη.
- ⁹ Ὅτι μὲν οὖν ἀκρασία καὶ ἐγκράτειά ἐστι μόνον περὶ ἅπερ ἀκολασία καὶ σωφροσύνη, καὶ ὅτι περὶ τὰ ἄλλα ἐστὶν ἄλλο εἶδος ἀκρασίας, λεγόμενον κατὰ μεταφορὰν καὶ οὐχ ἀπλῶς, δῆλον.
- vi** Ὅτι δὲ καὶ ἡττον αἰσχυρὰ ἀκρασία ἢ τοῦ θυμοῦ ἢ ²⁵ ἢ τῶν ἐπιθυμιῶν, θεωρήσωμεν. ἔοικε γὰρ ὁ θυμὸς ἀκούειν μὲν τι τοῦ λόγου, παρακούειν δέ, καθάπερ οἱ ταχεῖς τῶν διακόνων [οἱ]² πρὶν ἀκοῦσαι πᾶν τὸ λεγόμενον ἐκθέουσιν, εἰτα ἀμαρτάνουσι τῆς

¹ μὲν τινα ἐνίοτε ed.: μὲν post ἐνίοτε K^b, om. vulg.

² Jackson.

^a No such stories about Phalaris are alluded to elsewhere: so Burnet here brackets the name, supposing the subject of κατεῖχεν to be unexpressed, and taking § 2 to refer to Phalaris's well-known practice of burning human victims in a bronze bull. But that was hardly an instance of Bestiality.

^b i.e., inhuman vice.

^c 'Lack of control of the spirit': see c. iv. 2 note ^c.

of a mouse, shows the cowardice of a lower animal ; the man who was afraid of a weasel was a case of disease. So with folly : people irrational by nature and living solely by sensation, like certain remote tribes of barbarians, belong to the bestial class ; those who lose their reason owing to some disease, such as epilepsy, or through insanity, to the morbid.)

7 With these unnatural propensities it is possible in some cases merely to have the disposition and not to yield to it : I mean, for instance, Phalaris^a might have had the desire to eat a child, or to practise unnatural vice, and refrained ; or it is possible not merely to possess but to yield to the propensity.

8 As therefore with Vice, that natural to man is called simply vice, whereas the other kind^b is termed not simply vice, but vice with the qualifying epithet bestial or morbid, similarly with Unrestraint, it is clear that the bestial and morbid kinds are distinct from unrestraint proper, and that the name without qualification belongs only to that kind of unrestraint which is co-extensive with Profligacy of the human sort.

9 It is clear then that Self-restraint and Unrestraint relate only to the objects to which Temperance and Profligacy are related, and that unrestraint in relation to anything else is of another kind, which is only so called metaphorically and with a qualification. .

(vi) Let us now consider the point that Unrestraint in anger^c is less disgraceful than Unrestraint in the desires.

(Unrestraint in anger less reprehensible than Unrestraint proper.)

Now it appears that anger does to some extent hear reason, but hears it wrong, just as hasty servants hurry out of the room before they have heard the whole of what you are saying, and so mistake

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προστάξεως, καὶ οἱ κύνες, πρὶν σκέψασθαι εἰ φίλος, ἂν μόνον ψοφήσῃ, ὑλακτοῦσιν· οὕτως ὁ ³⁰ θυμὸς διὰ θερμότητα καὶ ταχυτήτα τῆς φύσεως ἀκούσας μὲν, οὐκ ἐπίταγμα δ' ἀκούσας, ὁρμᾷ πρὸς τὴν τιμωρίαν. ὁ μὲν γὰρ λόγος ἢ ἡ φαντασία ὅτι ὕβρις ἢ ὀλιγωρία ἐδήλωσεν, ὁ δ' ὥσπερ συλλογισάμενος ὅτι δεῖ τῷ τοιούτῳ πολεμεῖν χαλεπαίνει δὴ ἐνθύς· ἢ δ' ἐπιθυμία, εἰ μόνον εἴπη ³⁵ ὅτι ἡδὺν [ὁ λόγος ἢ]¹ ἢ αἰσθησις, ὁρμᾷ πρὸς τὴν ἀπόλαυσιν. ὥσθ' ὁ μὲν θυμὸς ἀκολουθεῖ τῷ λόγῳ ^{1149 b} πως, ἢ δ' ἐπιθυμία οὐ. αἰσχίον² οὖν· ὁ μὲν γὰρ τοῦ θυμοῦ ἀκρατῆς τοῦ λόγου πως ἡττάται, ὁ δὲ ² τῆς ἐπιθυμίας καὶ οὐ τοῦ λόγου. ἔτι ταῖς φυσικαῖς μᾶλλον συγγνώμῃ ἀκολουθεῖν ὀρέξεσιν, ἐπεὶ καὶ ⁵ ἐπιθυμίαις ταῖς τοιαύταις μᾶλλον ὅσαι κοιναὶ πᾶσι, καὶ ἐφ' ὅσον κοιναί· ὁ δὲ θυμὸς φυσικώτερον καὶ ἡ χαλεπότης τῶν ἐπιθυμιῶν τῶν τῆς ὑπερβολῆς καὶ τῶν μὴ ἀναγκαίων, ὥσπερ ὁ ἀπολογούμενος ὅτι τὸν πατέρα τύπτει “καὶ γὰρ οὗτος” ἔφη “τὸν ἑαυτοῦ, κακείνος τὸν ἄνωθεν,” καὶ τὸ ¹⁰ παιδίον δείξας “καὶ οὗτος ἐμέ” ἔφη, “ὅταν ἀνὴρ γένηται· συγγενὲς γὰρ ἡμῖν” καὶ ὁ ἐλκόμενος ὑπὸ τοῦ υἱοῦ παύεσθαι ἐκέλευε πρὸς ταῖς θύραις· καὶ γὰρ αὐτὸς ἐλκύσαι τὸν πατέρα μέχρις ἐνταῦθα. ³ ἔτι ἀδικώτεροι οἱ ἐπιβουλότεροι. ὁ μὲν οὖν θυμώ-

¹ Garvius.² αἰσχίον K^b: αἰσχίων.^a Perhaps ‘if someone merely knocks at the door.’^b These words are surely an interpolation.^c Viz., the man who is ‘unrestrained’ in the strict sense, i.e. cannot restrain his desires.^d This story is developed in Robert Browning’s poem

your order, and as watch-dogs bark at a mere sound,^a without waiting to see if it is a friend. Similarly anger, owing to the heat and swiftness of its nature, hears, but does not hear the order^c given, and rushes off to take vengeance. When reason or imagination suggests that an insult or slight has been received, anger flares up at once, but after reasoning as it were that you ought to make war on anybody who insults you. Desire on the other hand, at a mere hint from [the reason or ^b] the senses that a thing is pleasant, rushes off to enjoy it. Hence anger follows reason in a manner, but desire does not. Therefore yielding to desire is more disgraceful than yielding to anger, for he that fails to restrain his anger is in a way controlled by reason, but the other ^c is controlled not by reason but by desire.

- 2 Again, when impulses are natural, it is more excusable to follow them, since even with the desires it is more excusable to follow those that are common to all men, and in so far as they are common. But anger and bad temper are more natural than desire for excessive and unnecessary pleasures; witness the man who was had up for beating his father and who said in his defence, "Well, my father used to beat his father, and he used to beat his, and (pointing to his little boy) so will my son here beat me when he grows up; it runs in our family"; and the man who, when his son was throwing him out of the house, used to beg him to stop when he got to the door, 'because he only used to drag his father as far as that.'^a

- 3 Again, the craftier men are, the more unjust

"Halbert and Hob"; it is said also to occur in a German Volkslied.

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δης οὐκ ἐπίβουλος, οὐδ' ὁ θυμός, ἀλλὰ φανερός· 15
ἢ δ' ἐπιθυμία, καθάπερ τὴν Ἀφροδίτην φασί·

δολοπλόκας¹ γὰρ Κυπρογενεούς·

καὶ τὸν κεστὸν ἱμάντα Ὅμηρος·

πάρφασις ἣ τ' ἔκλειψε νόον πύκα περ φρονέοντος.

ὥστ' εἴπερ ἀδικωτέρα καὶ αἰσχιῶν ἢ ἀκρασία
αὕτη τῆς περὶ τὸν θυμόν ἐστι, καὶ ἀπλῶς ἀκρασία
4 καὶ κακία πως. ἔτι οὐδεὶς ὑβρίζει λυπούμενος, ὁ δ' 20
δ' ὀργῇ ποιῶν πᾶς ποιεῖ λυπούμενος, ὁ δ' ὑβρίζων
μεθ' ἡδονῆς. εἰ οὖν οἷς ὀργίζεσθαι μάλιστα
δίκαιον, ταῦτα ἀδικώτερα, καὶ ἡ ἀκρασία ἢ δι'
5 ἐπιθυμίαν· οὐ γάρ ἐστιν ἐν θυμῷ ὕβρις.—ὥς μὲν
τοῖνυν αἰσχιῶν ἢ περὶ ἐπιθυμίας ἀκρασία τῆς περὶ
τὸν θυμόν, καὶ ὅτι ἔστιν ἡ ἐγκράτεια καὶ ἡ 25
ἀκρασία περὶ ἐπιθυμίας καὶ ἡδονὰς σωματικὰς,
6 δῆλον. αὐτῶν δὲ τούτων τὰς διαφορὰς ληπτέον.
ὥσπερ γὰρ εἴρηται κατ' ἀρχάς, αἱ μὲν ἀνθρωπικαί

¹ δολοπλόκας L^b (v. Edmonds, *Lyra Graeca*, Sappho 134):
δολυπλόκου.

^a The line seems to have ended *Κυπρογένεος πρόπολον* (Bergk, cf. Hesych., Κ. π. προαγ(ω)γόν), 'for the servant of the wile-weaving Cyprus-born,' viz., Peitho, Persuasion. It is ascribed by Wilamowitz to Sappho, and the same epithet is applied to Aphrodite in Sappho, i. 2.

^b One of the emblematic figures embroidered on the girdle of Aphrodite, *Iliad*, xiv. 217.

^c ὕβρις means any injury that is insulting to the victim, but here the writer is thinking specially of outrage prompted by lust. The argument is based on the feelings of both agent and victim. Anger, being a painful feeling, does not show wantonness or insolence, for wanton acts are pleasant to the doer. An injury done in anger therefore arouses less anger in return, less resentment in the victim, than does

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they are. Now the hot-tempered man is not crafty, nor is anger, but open ; whereas desire is crafty, as they say of Aphrodite :

Weaver of wiles in Cyprus born ^a

and Homer writes of her ' broidered girdle '

Cajolery ^b that cheats the wisest wits.

As therefore unrestraint in desire is more unjust as well as more disgraceful than unrestraint as regards anger, unrestraint in desire is Unrestraint in the strict sense, and is even in a certain sense Vice.

4 Again, a wanton outrage ^c gives pleasure to the doer, never pain, whereas an act done in anger always causes him a feeling of pain. If then things are unjust in proportion to the justice of the anger they arouse in the victim, unrestraint arising from desire is more unjust than that arising from anger ; for anger contains no element of wanton insolence.

5 It is clear therefore that unrestraint in one's desires is more disgraceful than unrestraint in anger, and that it is in relation to bodily desires and pleasures that Self-restraint and Unrestraint are really manifested.

6 But we must distinguish among the bodily desires and pleasures themselves. As was said at the beginning, ^d some of these are human and natural

Bestiality
further
considered.

wanton outrage due to unrestrained desire. Therefore it is less ' unjust,' less of an injury. Cf. *Rhetoric*, II. iii. 1380 a 34 (anger is not so much resented, because it does not show contempt for its victim).

^a See c. v. 1, and also c. i. 3. ^b

εἰσι καὶ φυσικαὶ καὶ τῷ γένει καὶ τῷ μεγέθει, αἱ δὲ θηριώδεις, αἱ δὲ διὰ πηρώσεις καὶ νοσήματα. 30
 τούτων δὲ περὶ τὰς πρώτας σωφροσύνη καὶ ἀκολα-
 σία μόνον ἐστίν· διὸ καὶ τὰ θηρία οὔτε σώφρονα
 οὔτ' ἀκόλαστα λέγομεν ἀλλ' ἢ κατὰ μεταφωρὰν
 καὶ εἴ τι¹ ὅλως ἄλλο πρὸς ἄλλο διαφέρει γένος τῶν
 ζώων ὑβρεῖ καὶ σιναμωρία καὶ τῷ παμφάγον
 εἶναι· οὐ γὰρ ἔχει προαίρεσιν οὔδε λογισμόν, ἀλλ' 35
 ἐξέστηκε τῆς φύσεως, ὥσπερ οἱ μαινόμενοι τῶν 1150 a
 7 ἀνθρώπων. ἔλαττον δὲ θηριότης κακίας,² φοβερώ-
 τερον δέ· οὐ γὰρ διέφθαρται τὸ βέλτιστον, ὥσπερ
 ἐν τῷ ἀνθρώπῳ, ἀλλ' οὐκ ἔχει. ὅμοιον οὖν
 ὥσπερ ἄψυχον συμβάλλειν πρὸς ἔμψυχον, πότερον
 κάκιον· ἀσινεστέρα γὰρ ἢ φαυλότης αἰεὶ ἢ τοῦ μὴ 5
 ἔχοντος ἀρχήν, ὁ δὲ νοῦς ἀρχή. (παραπλήσιον
 οὖν τὸ³ συμβάλλειν ἀδικίαν πρὸς ἀνθρωπὸν ἀδικον·
 ἔστι γὰρ ὡς ἐκάτερον κάκιον.) μυριοπλάσια γὰρ
 ἂν κακὰ ποιήσειεν ἀνθρωπος κακὸς θηρίου.

vii Περὶ δὲ τὰς δι' ἀφῆς καὶ γεύσεως ἡδονὰς καὶ
 λύπας καὶ ἐπιθυμίας καὶ φυγὰς, περὶ αὗς ἡ τε 10
 ἀκολασία καὶ ἡ σωφροσύνη διωρίσθη πρότερον,

¹ τι? Bywater: *τινι*.

² κακίας <κακὸν> Rassow.

³ τῷ? Richards.

^a The writer here seems to regard all animals as unnatural, in the sense of imperfectly developed, because irrational. The order precludes our taking this clause of the exceptional species (asses, wild boars, and pigs according to Greek zoology) just alluded to; moreover, as the excessive appetites of these are analogous to Profligacy in men, they are not aberrations from animal nature any more than profligates are from human nature.

^b No two commentators read the same sense into this section, which is 'little more than a series of jottings' (Burnet). The version given largely follows Peters. The

both in kind and degree, some bestial, and some due to arrested development or disease. Now it is only with the first class that Temperance and Profligacy are concerned; hence we do not use the terms temperate or profligate of the lower animals, except, metaphorically, of certain entire species distinguished from the rest by their exceptionally lascivious, mischievous, or omnivorous habits; for animals have neither the faculty of choice nor of calculation: they are aberrations from nature,^a like
 7 men who are insane. Bestiality^b is less <evil> than vice, though more horrible: for <in a bestial man as in an animal> the highest part <i.e. the intellect> is not corrupted, as it is in a man <who is wicked in a human way>, but entirely lacking. So that it is like comparing an inanimate with an animate thing, and asking which is the more evil; for the badness of a thing which has no originating principle—and Intelligence is such a principle—is always less capable of mischief. ^c (It is therefore like comparing Injustice with an unjust man: one is worse in one way and the other in another). For a bad man can do ten thousand times more harm than an animal <or a bestial man>.

- vii (iii) But in relation to the pleasures and pains of touch and taste, and the corresponding desires and acts of avoidance, which have already been defined as the sphere in which Profligacy and

(iii) Endurance and Softness related to pain as Self-restraint and Unrestraint to pleasure.

insertions in brackets indicate what may possibly have been in the writer's mind.

^c The relevance of this parenthesis is obscure; its meaning, in the light of other passages in Aristotle, may be that injustice is worse in the sense that it is evil *per se* (whereas the unjust man is evil *per accidens*), but the unjust man is worse in the sense that he is productive of evil.

ἔστι μὲν οὕτως ἔχειν ὥστε ἡττᾶσθαι καὶ ὦν οἱ πολλοὶ κρείττους, ἔστι δὲ κρατεῖν καὶ ὦν οἱ πολλοὶ ἡττους· τούτῳ δ' ὁ μὲν περὶ ἡδονὰς ἀκρατῆς ὁ δ' ἐγκρατῆς, ὁ δὲ περὶ λύπας μαλακὸς ὁ δὲ καρτερικός. μεταξὺ δ' ἡ τῶν πλείστων ἕξις, καὶ εἰ 15
 2 ῥέπουσι μᾶλλον πρὸς τὰς χεῖρους. ἐπεὶ δ' ἔναι τῶν ἡδονῶν ἀναγκαῖαί εἰσιν αἱ δ' οὐ, καὶ μέχρι τινός, αἱ δ' ὑπερβολαὶ οὐ, οὐδ' αἱ ἐλλείψεις, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ ἐπιθυμίας ἔχει καὶ λύπας, ὁ μὲν τὰς ὑπερβολὰς διώκων τῶν ἡδέων ἢ καθ' ὑπερβολάς,¹ καὶ² διὰ προαίρεσιν, δι' αὐτὰς καὶ 20
 μηδὲν δι' ἕτερον ἀποβαῖνον, ἀκόλαστος· ἀνάγκη γὰρ τοῦτον μὴ εἶναι μεταμελητικόν, ὥστ' ἀνίατος· ὁ γὰρ ἀμεταμέλητος ἀνίατος. ὁ δ' ἐλλείπων ὁ ἀντικείμενος, ὁ δὲ μέσος σῶφρων. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ὁ φεύγων τὰς σωματικὰς λύπας μὴ δι' ἡτταν
 3 ἀλλὰ διὰ προαίρεσιν.—(τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρουμένων 25
 ὁ μὲν ἄγεται διὰ τὴν ἡδονήν, ὁ δὲ διὰ τὸ φεύγειν τὴν λύπην τὴν ἀπὸ τῆς ἐπιθυμίας. ὥστε διαφέρουσιν ἀλλήλων· παντὶ δ' ἂν δόξειε χείρων εἶναι, εἴ τις μὴ ἐπιθυμῶν ἢ ἡρέμα πράττοι τι

¹ ἢ καθ' ὑπερβολὰς (-ῆν M^b) corrupta.

² καὶ M^b: ἢ.

^a This addition is illogically expressed, but it is a reminder that to take too little of certain 'necessary' pleasures is as wrong as to take too much: see c. iv. 5 note ^a.

^b Apparently the text is corrupt; the tripartite classification of c. iv. 5 is ignored.

^c Incurable, and therefore profligate, ἀκόλαστος, which means literally either 'incorrigible' or 'unchastized': see note on iii. xii. 5.

Temperance are displayed, it is possible on the one hand to have such a disposition as to succumb even to those temptations to which most men are superior, or on the other hand to conquer even those to which most men succumb. These two dispositions, when manifested in relation to pleasure, constitute Unrestraint and Restraint respectively ; when in relation to pain, Softness and Endurance. The disposition of the great majority of men lies between the two, though they incline rather to the worse extremes.

- 2 And inasmuch as some pleasures are necessary Profligacy. and others not, and the former are only necessary within certain limits, excessive indulgence in them not being necessary, nor yet deficient indulgence^a either, and inasmuch as the same holds good also of desires and of pains, one who pursues excessive pleasures, or pursues them to excess,^b and from choice, for their own sakes and not for the sake of some ulterior consequence, is a profligate ; for a man of this character is certain to feel no regret for his excesses afterwards, and this being so, he is incurable,^c since there is no cure for one who does not regret his error. The man deficient in the enjoyment of pleasures is the opposite of the profligate ; and the middle character is the temperate man. And similarly, he who avoids bodily pains not because his will is overpowered but of deliberate
- 3 choice, is also profligate. (Those on the other hand who yield not from choice, are prompted either by the pleasure of indulgence, or by the impulse to avoid the pain of unsatisfied desire. Hence there is a difference between deliberate and non-deliberate indulgence. Everyone would think a man worse if he did something disgraceful when he felt only a

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αἰσχροῦ, ἢ εἰ σφόδρα ἐπιθυμῶν, καὶ εἰ μὴ ὀργιζόμε-
 νος τύπτοι ἢ εἰ ὀργιζόμενος· τί γὰρ ἂν ἐποίει ἐν ³⁰
 πάθει ὧν; διὸ ὁ ἀκόλαστος χείρων τοῦ ἀκρατοῦς.)
 —τῶν δὴ λεχθέντων τὸ μὲν μαλακίας εἶδος μᾶλλον,
 4 ὁ δ' ἀκόλαστος. ἀντίκειται δὲ τῷ μὲν ἀκρατεῖ ὁ
 ἐγκρατής, τῷ δὲ μαλακῷ ὁ καρτερικός· τὸ μὲν γὰρ
 καρτερεῖν ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ ἀντέχειν, ἢ δ' ἐγκράτεια
 ἐν τῷ κρατεῖν, ἕτερον δὲ τὸ ἀντέχειν καὶ κρατεῖν, ³⁵
 ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ μὴ ἡττᾶσθαι τοῦ νικᾶν· διὸ καὶ
 5 αἰρετώτερον ἐγκράτεια καρτερίας ἐστίν. ὁ δ' ¹¹⁵⁰
 ἐλλείπων πρὸς ἃ οἱ πολλοὶ καὶ ἀντιτείνουσι καὶ
 δύνανται,¹ οὗτος μαλακὸς καὶ τρυφῶν (καὶ γὰρ
 ἡ τρυφή μαλακία τίς ἐστίν), ὃς ἔλκει τὸ ἱμάτιον
 ἵνα μὴ πονήσῃ τὴν ἀπὸ τοῦ αἴρειν λύπην, καὶ
 μιμούμενος τὸν κάμνοντα οὐκ οἶεται ἄθλιος εἶναι ⁵
 6 ἀθλίῳ ὅμοιος ὧν. ὁμοίως δ' ἔχει καὶ περὶ ἐγ-
 κράτειαν καὶ ἀκρασίαν· οὐ γὰρ εἴ τις ἰσχυρῶν καὶ
 ὑπερβαλλουσῶν ἡδονῶν ἡττᾶται ἢ λυπῶν, θαν-
 μαστόν—ἀλλὰ συγγνωμονικὸν εἰ ἀντιτείνων, ὥσπερ
 ὁ Θεοδέκτου Φιλοκτήτης ὑπὸ τοῦ ἔχεως πεπληγ-
 μένος ἢ ὁ Καρκίνου ἐν τῇ Ἀλόπῃ Κερκύων, καὶ ¹⁰
 ὥσπερ οἱ κατέχειν πειρώμενοι τὸν γέλωτα ἀθρόον
 ἐκκαγχάζουσιν, οἷον συνέπεσε Ξενοφάντῳ—ἀλλ'
 εἴ τις πρὸς ἃς οἱ πολλοὶ δύνανται ἀντέχειν, τούτων
 ἡττᾶται καὶ μὴ δύναται ἀντιτείνειν, μὴ διὰ φύσιν

¹ δύνανται <ἀντέχειν> Richards.

^a Not Softness strictly, which ranges with Unrestraint and is not deliberate.

^b Seneca, *De ira*, ii. 2, says that Xenophantus's martial music made Alexander put out his hand to grasp his weapons (the story is told by Suidas of a Theban flute-player Timotheus, cf. Dryden, *Alexander's Feast*); apparently Alexander's music had a different effect on Xenophantus!

slight desire, or none at all, than if he acted from a strong desire, or if he struck another in cold blood than if he did so in anger; for what would he have done had his passions been aroused? Hence the profligate man is worse than the unrestrained.)

Of the dispositions described above, the deliberate avoidance of pain is rather a kind ^a of Softness; the deliberate pursuit of pleasure is Profligacy in the strict sense.

- 4 Self-restraint is the opposite of Unrestraint, Endurance of Softness; for Endurance means only successful resistance, whereas Restraint implies mastery, which is a different matter: victory is more glorious than the mere avoidance of defeat. Hence self-restraint is a more valuable quality than Endur-
- 5 ance. One who is deficient in resistance to pains that most men withstand with success, is soft or luxurious (for Luxury is a kind of Softness): such a man lets his cloak trail on the ground to escape the fatigue and trouble of lifting it, or feigns sickness, not seeing that to counterfeit misery is to be miser-
- 6 able. The same holds good of Self-restraint and Unrestraint. It is not surprising that a man should be overcome by violent and excessive pleasures or pains: indeed it is excusable if he succumbs after a struggle, like Philoctetes in Theodectes when bitten by the viper, or Kerkyon in the *Alope* of Karkinos, or as men who try to restrain their laughter explode in one great guffaw, as happened to Xenophantus.^b But we are surprised when a man is overcome by pleasures and pains which most men are able to withstand, except when his failure to resist is due to some innate tendency, or to disease:

τοῦ γένους ἢ διὰ νόσον, οἷον ἐν τοῖς Σκυθῶν βασι-
 λεῦσιν ἢ μαλακία διὰ τὸ γένος, καὶ ὡς τὸ θῆλυ ¹⁵
 7 πρὸς τὸ ἄρρεν διέστηκεν. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ ὁ παιδιώδης
 ἀκόλαστος εἶναι, ἔστι δὲ μαλακός· ἡ γὰρ παιδιὰ
 ἄνεσις ἐστίν, εἴπερ ἀνάπαυσις, τῶν δὲ πρὸς
 8 ταύτην ὑπερβαλλόντων ὁ παιδιώδης ἐστίν. ἀκρασίας
 δὲ τὸ μὲν προπέτεια τὸ δ' ἀσθένεια· οἱ μὲν γὰρ ²⁰
 βουλευσάμενοι οὐκ ἐμμένουσιν οἷς ἐβουλεύσαντο
 διὰ τὸ πάθος, οἱ δὲ διὰ τὸ μὴ βουλεύσασθαι
 ἄγονται ὑπὸ τοῦ πάθους· ἔνιοι γάρ, ὥσπερ προ-
 γαργαλισθέντες¹ οὐ γαργαλίζονται, οὕτω καὶ
 προαισθόμενοι καὶ προῖδόντες καὶ προεγείραντες
 ἑαυτοὺς καὶ τὸν λογισμόν οὐχ ἡττῶνται ὑπὸ τοῦ
 πάθους, οὕτ' ἂν ἡδὺ ἦ οὕτ' ἂν λυπηρόν. μάλιστα ²⁵
 δ' οἱ ὀξεῖς καὶ μελαγχολικοὶ τὴν προπετῇ ἀκρασίαν
 εἰσὶν ἀκρατεῖς· οἱ μὲν γὰρ διὰ τὴν ταχυτῆτα, οἱ
 δὲ διὰ τὴν σφοδρότητα οὐκ ἀναμένουσι τὸν λόγον,
 διὰ τὸ ἀκολουθητικοὶ εἶναι τῇ φαντασίᾳ.

viii Ἔστι δ' ὁ μὲν ἀκόλαστος, ὥσπερ ἐλέχθη, οὐ
 μεταμελητικός (ἐμμένει γὰρ τῇ προαιρέσει)· ὁ δ' ³⁰
 ἀκρατὴς μεταμελητικὸς πᾶς. διὸ οὐχ ὥσπερ
 ἠπορήσαμεν, οὕτω καὶ ἔχει, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἀνίατος,

¹ προγαργαλισθέντες L^b: -λίσαντες vulg., προαισθόμενοι vel προῖδόντες Richards.

^a Herodotus, i. 105, says that certain Scythians who robbed the temple of Uranian Aphrodite at Askalon were smitten with the 'feminine disease,' which affected their descendants ever after; but Hippocrates, *Περὶ ἀέρων* 22, describes effeminate symptoms prevalent among wealthy and high-born Scythians, due to being too much on horse-back.

^b i.e., it is not an excessive proneness to pursue pleasure, and therefore is not profligacy.

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instances of the former being the hereditary effeminacy^a of the royal family of Scythia, and the inferior endurance of the female sex as compared with the male.

- 7 People too fond of amusement are thought to be profligate, but really they are soft; for amusement is rest, and therefore a slackening of effort, and addiction to amusement is a form of excessive slackness.^b

- 8 But there are two forms of Unrestraint, Impetuousness and Weakness. The weak deliberate, but then are prevented by passion from keeping to their resolution; the impetuous are led by passion because they do not stop to deliberate: since some people withstand the attacks of passion, whether pleasant or painful, by feeling or seeing them coming, and rousing themselves, that is, their reasoning faculty, in advance, just as one is proof against tickling if one has just been tickled already.^c It is the quick and the excitable who are most liable to the impetuous form of Unrestraint, because the former are too hasty and the latter too vehement to wait for reason, being prone to follow their imagination.

Two forms of Unrestraint.

- viii The profligate, as we said,^d does not feel remorse, for he abides by his choice; the unrestrained man on the other hand invariably repents his excesses afterwards. Hence the objection that we stated^e does not hold good; on the contrary, it is the profligacy.

(iv) Further points: (1) Unrestraint further distinguished from Profligacy.

^a The variant 'can avoid being tickled by tickling the other person first' seems less likely, but either reading may be doubted: see critical note. Aristotle elsewhere (*Prob.* 965 a 11) remarks that one is less sensitive to tickling if one is not taken unawares, and that is why one cannot tickle oneself.

^b c. vii. 2.

^c c. ii. 10.

ὁ δ' ἰατός· ἔοικε γὰρ ἡ μὲν μοχθηρία τῶν νοσημάτων οἷον ὑδέρῳ καὶ φθίσει, ἡ δ' ἀκρασία τοῖς ἐπιληπτικοῖς· ἡ μὲν γὰρ συνεχῆς, ἡ δ' οὐ συνεχῆς πονηρία.¹ καὶ ὅλως δ' ἕτερον τὸ γένος ἀκρασίας³⁵ καὶ κακίας· ἡ μὲν γὰρ κακία λανθάνει, ἡ δ' ἀκρασία οὐ λανθάνει.—αὐτῶν δὲ τούτων βέλτιους^{1151 a} οἱ ἐκστατικοὶ ἢ οἱ τὸν λόγον ἔχοντες μὲν, μὴ ἐμμένοντες δέ· ὑπ' ἐλάττονος γὰρ πάθους ἡττῶνται, καὶ οὐκ ἀπροβούλευτοι ὥσπερ ἄτεροι· ὅμοιος γὰρ ὁ ἀκρατής ἐστι τοῖς ταχὺ μεθυσκομένοις καὶ ὑπ' ὀλίγου οἴνου καὶ ἐλάττονος ἢ ὡς οἱ πολλοί. ὅτις μὲν οὖν κακία ἢ ἀκρασία οὐκ ἔστι, φανερόν (ἀλλὰ πη ἴσως)· τὸ μὲν γὰρ παρὰ προαίρεσιν τὸ δὲ κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν ἐστίν· οὐ μὴν ἄλλ' ὁμοίον γε κατὰ τὰς πράξεις, ὥσπερ τὸ Δημοδόκου εἰς Μιλησίους

Μιλήσιοι ἀξύνετοι μὲν
οὐκ εἰσίν, δρῶσιν δ' οἷάπερ ἀξύνετοι²—

10

καὶ οἱ ἀκρατεῖς ἄδικοι μὲν οὐκ εἰσίν, ἀδικοῦσι³ 4 δέ.—ἐπεὶ δ' ὁ μὲν τοιοῦτος οἷος μὴ διὰ τὸ πεπεῖσθαι διώκειν τὰς καθ' ὑπερβολὴν καὶ παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον σωματικὰς ἡδονάς, ὁ δὲ πέπεισται διὰ τὸ τοιοῦτος εἶναι οἷος διώκειν αὐτάς, ἐκεῖνος

¹ πονηρία secl. Scaliger.

² ἀξύνετοι Richards: ἀξ. O^b, οἱ ἀξ. vulg.

³ ἀδικήσουσι K^b.

^a ἐκστατικός is here used as equivalent to προπετής, 'impetuous,' in c. vii. 8; whereas below, § 5, as in c. i. 6 and c. ii. 7, it denotes the quality with which it is here contrasted.

gate who cannot be cured, whereas the unrestrained man can; for Vice resembles diseases like dropsy and consumption, whereas Unrestraint is like epilepsy, Vice being a chronic, Unrestraint an intermittent evil. Indeed Unrestraint and Vice are entirely different in kind, for Vice is unconscious, whereas the unrestrained man is aware of his infirmity.

- 2 Among the unrestrained themselves, the impulsive^a sort are better than those who know the right principle but do not keep to it; for these succumb to smaller temptations, and they do not yield without deliberation, as do the impulsive; the unrestrained^b man is like people who get drunk quickly, and with a small amount of wine, or with less than most men.
- 3 That Unrestraint is not strictly a vice (though it is perhaps vice in a sense), is clear; for Unrestraint acts against deliberate choice, Vice in accordance with it. But nevertheless in the actions that result from it it resembles Vice: just as Demodocus wrote of the people of Miletus—

Milesians are no fools, 'tis true,
But yet they act as fools would do.

Similarly the unrestrained are not unjust, but they do unjust things.

- 4 Again,^c the unrestrained man is so constituted as to pursue bodily pleasures that are excessive and contrary to right principle without any belief that he ought to do so, whereas the profligate, because he is so constituted as to pursue them, is convinced that he ought to pursue them. Therefore the former

^b *i.e.*, the feeble sort who stop to think and yet succumb; the impulsive man is not the typical unrestrained man.

^c The argument is here resumed from § 1.

μὲν οὖν εὐμετάπειστος, οὗτος δ' οὐ. ἡ γὰρ ἀρετὴ ¹⁵
 καὶ ἡ μοχθηρία τὴν ἀρχὴν ἢ μὲν φθείρει ἢ δὲ
 σώζει, ἐν δὲ ταῖς πράξεσι τὸ οὐ ἔνεκα ἀρχή,
 ὥσπερ ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς αἱ ὑποθέσεις· οὔτε
 δὴ ἐκεῖ ὁ λόγος διδασκαλικὸς τῶν ἀρχῶν· οὔτε
 ἐνταῦθα, ἀλλ' ἀρετὴ ἢ φυσικὴ ἢ ἐθιστὴ τοῦ
 ὀρθοδοξεῖν περὶ τὴν ἀρχήν. σῶφρων μὲν οὖν ὁ
 5 τοιοῦτος, ἀκόλαστος δ' ὁ ἐναντίος. ἔστι δέ τις ²⁰
 διὰ πάθος ἐκστατικὸς παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, ὃν
 ὥστε μὲν μὴ πράττειν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον
 κρατεῖ τὸ πάθος, ὥστε δ' εἶναι τοιοῦτον οἷον
 πεπεῖσθαι διώκειν ἀνέδην δεῖν τὰς τοιαύτας ἡδο-
 νὰς οὐ κρατεῖ· οὗτός ἐστιν ὁ ἀκρατής, βελτίων
 ὢν¹ τοῦ ἀκολάστου, οὐδὲ φαῦλος ἀπλῶς· σώζεται ²⁵
 γὰρ τὸ βέλτιστον, ἢ ἀρχή. ἄλλος δ' ἐναντίος, ὁ
 ἐμμενεντικὸς καὶ οὐκ ἐκστατικὸς διὰ γε τὸ πάθος.
 φανερόν δὴ ἐκ τούτων ὅτι ἡ μὲν σπουδαία ἔξις,
 ἡ δὲ φαύλη.

- ix Πότερον οὖν ἐγκρατής ἐστιν ὁ ὁπιοῦν λόγῳ
 καὶ ὁπιοῦν προαιρέσει ἐμμένων ἢ ὁ τῇ ὀρθῇ, ³⁰
 καὶ ἀκρατής δὲ ὁ ὁπιοῦν μὴ ἐμμένων προαιρέσει
 καὶ ὁπιοῦν λόγῳ ἢ ὁ τῷ μὴ ψευδεῖ² λόγῳ καὶ

¹ ὢν add. Ald.

² μὴ ψευδεῖ: μὴ add. L^b, ἀψευδεῖ Coraes.

^a-i.e., to change his conduct. The unrestrained man's belief is right already and he needs only to be induced to act up to it; whereas the profligate must be persuaded to change his belief before he will alter his conduct.

^b Cf. vi. vi. 5 f.

^c The context might indicate that the *definitions* are meant, which, themselves apprehended intuitively, are the starting-points of mathematical deductions. But these are ordinarily distinguished by Aristotle from *hypotheses*, which are assertions of the existence of things, not of their nature.

can easily be persuaded to change,^a but the latter cannot. For virtue preserves the fundamental principle,^b vice destroys it, and the first principle or starting-point in matters of conduct is the end proposed, which corresponds to the hypotheses^c of mathematics; hence no more in ethics than in mathematics are the first principles imparted by process of reasoning, but by virtue, whether natural or acquired by training in right opinion as to the first principle. The man of principle therefore is temperate, the man who has lost all principle, profligate. But there is a person who abandons his choice, against right principle, under the influence of passion, who is mastered by passion sufficiently for him not to act in accordance with right principle, but not so completely as to be of such a character as to believe that the reckless pursuit of pleasure is right. This is the unrestrained man: he is better than the profligate, and not absolutely bad, for in him the highest part of man, the fundamental principle, is still preserved. Opposed to the unrestrained man is another, who stands firm by his choice, and does not abandon it under the mere impulse of passion.

It is clear then from these considerations that Self-restraint is a good quality and Unrestraint a bad one.

- ix Is then a man self-restrained if he stands by a principle or choice of any sort, or must it be the right choice? and is a man unrestrained if he fails to stand by a choice or principle of any sort, or only

(2) To abandon purposes not always failure of Self-restraint.

It is therefore suggested that the term here means the *propositions* of mathematics, which are assumed as the starting-point of the analytical process by which a proof of a theorem or solution of a problem may be discovered: cf. III. iii. 12.

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τῇ προαιρέσει τῇ ὀρθῇ,¹ ὥσπερ ἡπορήθη πρό-
 τερον; ἢ κατὰ μὲν συμβεβηκὸς ὁποιοῦν, καθ'
 αὐτὸ δὲ τῷ ἀληθεῖ λόγῳ καὶ τῇ ὀρθῇ προαιρέσει
 ὁ μὲν ἐμμένει ὁ δ' οὐκ ἐμμένει; εἰ γάρ τις τοδὶ ³⁵
 διὰ τοδὶ αἰρεῖται ἢ διώκει, καθ' αὐτὸ μὲν τοῦτο ¹¹⁵¹ ¹
 διώκει καὶ αἰρεῖται, κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς δὲ τὸ
 πρότερον. ἀπλῶς δὲ λέγομεν τὸ καθ' αὐτό·
 ὥστε ἔστι μὲν ὡς ὁποιοῦν δόξῃ ὁ μὲν ἐμμένει
² ὁ δ' ἐξίσταται, ἀπλῶς δὲ [ὁ]² τῇ ἀληθεί.—εἰσὶ
 δέ τινες καὶ ἐμμενετικοὶ τῇ δόξῃ, οὓς καλοῦσιν ⁵
 ἰσχυρογνώμονας, οἷον δύσπειστοι καὶ οὐκ εὐ-
 μετάπειστοι· οἱ ὅμοιον μὲν τι ἔχουσι τῷ ἐγκρατεῖ
 ὥσπερ ὁ ἄσωτος τῷ ἐλευθερίῳ καὶ ὁ θρασὺς τῷ
 θαρραλέῳ, εἰσὶ δ' ἕτεροι κατὰ πολλά. ὁ μὲν γὰρ
 διὰ πάθος καὶ ἐπιθυμίαν οὐ μεταβάλλει [ὁ ἐγ-
 κρατῆς],³ ἐπεὶ εὐπειστος, ὅταν τύχῃ, ἔσται [ὁ ¹⁰
 ἐγκρατῆς].³ οἱ⁴ δὲ οὐχ ὑπὸ λόγου, ἐπεὶ ἐπιθυμίας
 γε λαμβάνουσι, καὶ ἄγονται πολλοὶ ὑπὸ τῶν
³ ἡδονῶν. εἰσὶ δὲ ἰσχυρογνώμονες οἱ ἰδιογνώμονες
 καὶ οἱ ἀμαθεῖς καὶ οἱ ἄγροικοι, οἱ μὲν ἰδιογνώ-
 μονες δι' ἡδονὴν καὶ λύπην· χαίρουσι γὰρ νικῶντες,
 εἰ μὴ μεταπαίθωνται, καὶ λυποῦνται εἰ μὴ ἄκυρα ¹⁵
 τὰ αὐτῶν ἢ ὥσπερ ψηφίσματα· ὥστε μᾶλλον τῷ
⁴ ἀκρατεῖ ἐοίκασιν ἢ τῷ ἐγκρατεῖ.—εἰσὶ δέ τινες
 οἱ τοῖς δόξασιν οὐκ ἐμμένουσιν οὐ δι' ἀκρασίαν,
 οἷον ἐν τῷ Φιλοκτήτῃ τῷ Σοφοκλέους ὁ Νεο-

¹ ὀρθῇ L^b: μὴ ὀρθῇ.³ Scaliger.² [ὁ] om. Turnebus.⁴ οἱ Γ: ὁ.

if he fails to stand by the true principle and the right choice? This difficulty was raised before.^a Perhaps the answer is, that though accidentally it may be any principle or choice, essentially it is the true principle and the right choice that the one stands by and the other does not; in the sense that if a man chooses or pursues *b* as a means to *a*, *a* is essentially, *b* only accidentally, his object and his choice. And by 'essentially' we mean 'absolutely'; hence while in a sense it is any sort of opinion, speaking absolutely it is the true opinion that the one stands by and the other abandons.

² But there are some persons who stand by their opinion whom we call 'obstinate,' meaning that they are hard to convince, and not easily persuaded to change their convictions. These bear some resemblance to the self-restrained man, as the prodigal does to the liberal, and the reckless to the brave; but they are really different in many respects. The self-restrained man stands firm against passion and desire: he will be ready on occasion to yield to persuasion; but the obstinate stand firm against reason: they are not proof against desire,
³ and are often led by pleasure. Types of obstinacy are the opinionated, the stupid, and the boorish. The motives of the opinionated are pleasure and pain: the agreeable sense of victory in not being persuaded to change their minds, and the annoyance of having the decrees of their sovereign will and pleasure annulled. Hence they really resemble the unrestrained more than the restrained.

⁴ And there are some who fail to abide by their resolves from some other cause than lack of self-restraint, for instance, Neoptolemus^b in the *Philo-*

πτολεμος. καίτοι δι' ἡδονὴν οὐκ ἐνέμεινεν, ἀλλὰ καλήν· τὸ γὰρ ἀληθεύειν αὐτῷ ἡδὺ¹ ἦν, ἐπείσθη 20 δ' ὑπὸ τοῦ Ὀδυσσέως ψεύδεσθαι. οὐ γὰρ πᾶς ὁ δι' ἡδονὴν τι πράττων οὐτ' ἀκόλαστος οὔτε φαῦλος οὐτ' ἀκρατής, ἀλλ' ὁ δι' αἰσχροῦ.

- 5 Ἐπεὶ δ' ἐστὶ τις καὶ τοιοῦτος οἷος ἦττον² ἢ δεῖ τοῖς σωματικοῖς χαίρειν,³ καὶ οὐκ ἐμμένων³ τῷ λόγῳ ἢ⁴ τοιοῦτος, τούτου καὶ τοῦ ἀκρατοῦς 25 μέσος ὁ ἐγκρατής· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἀκρατής οὐκ ἐμμένει τῷ λόγῳ διὰ τὸ μᾶλλον τι, οὗτος δὲ διὰ τὸ ἦττόν τι· ὁ δ' ἐγκρατής ἐμμένει καὶ οὐδὲ δι' ἕτερον μεταβάλλει. δεῖ δέ, εἴπερ ἡ ἐγκράτεια σπουδαῖον, ἀμφοτέρας τὰς ἐναντίας ἕξεις φαύλας εἶναι, ὥσπερ καὶ φαίνονται· ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ τὴν ἑτέραν ἐν 30 ὀλίγοις καὶ ὀλιγάκις εἶναι φανεράν, ὥσπερ ἡ σωφροσύνη τῇ ἀκολασίᾳ δοκεῖ ἐναντίον εἶναι 6 μόνον, οὕτω καὶ ἡ ἐγκράτεια τῇ ἀκρασίᾳ. ἐπεὶ δὲ καθ' ὁμοιότητα πολλὰ λέγεται, καὶ ἡ ἐγκράτεια ἡ τοῦ σώφρονος καθ' ὁμοιότητα ἠκολούθηκεν· ὅ τε γὰρ ἐγκρατής οἷος μηδὲν παρὰ τὸν λόγον 35 διὰ τὰς σωματικὰς ἡδονὰς ποιεῖν καὶ ὁ σώφρων, 1152 a ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἔχων ὁ δ' οὐκ ἔχων φαύλας ἐπιθυμίας, καὶ ὁ μὲν τοιοῦτος οἷος μὴ ἡδεσθαι παρὰ τὸν

¹ ἡδὺ Richards: καλόν.

² χαίρειν Asp.: χαίρων.

³ ἐμμένειν Muretus.

⁴ ἢ M^b: ὁ vulg., ὁ [τοιοῦτος] Bywater.

^a The mss., instead of 'pleasant,' repeat 'noble' by a slip.

^b Cf. III. xi. 7.

^c Though he conquers them.

cietes of Sophocles. It is true that his motive for changing was pleasure, though a noble pleasure, since it was pleasant^a for him to speak the truth, and he had only told a lie at the instigation of Odysseus. In fact, not everyone whose conduct is guided by pleasure is either profligate and base, or unrestrained, but only those who yield to disgraceful pleasures.

- 5 There is also a character^b that takes less than the proper amount of pleasure in the things of the body, and that fails to stand by principle in that sense. The self-restrained man therefore is really intermediate between the unrestrained man and the type described. The unrestrained man departs from principle because he enjoys bodily pleasures too much, the person described does so because he enjoys them too little; while the self-restrained man stands by principle and does not change from either cause. And inasmuch as Self-restraint is good, it follows that both the dispositions opposed to it are bad, as indeed they appear to be; but because one of the two is found only in a few people, and is rarely displayed, Unrestraint is thought to be the sole opposite of Self-restraint, just as Profligacy is thought to be the sole opposite of Temperance. Insensibility to pleasure.

- 6 Many terms are used in an analogical sense, and so we have come to speak by analogy of the 'self-restraint' of the temperate man, because the temperate man, as well as the self-restrained, is so constituted as never to be led by the pleasures of the body to act against principle. But whereas the self-restrained man has evil desires,^c the temperate man has none; he is so constituted as to take no pleasure in things that are contrary to principle, (3) Self-restraint and Unrestraint further distinguished from Temperance and Profligacy.

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7 λόγον, ὁ δ' οἶος ἦδεσθαι ἀλλὰ μὴ ἄγεσθαι. ὅμοιοι
 δὲ καὶ ὁ ἀκρατῆς καὶ ὁ ἀκόλαστος, ἕτεροι μὲν
 ὄντες, ἀμφοτέρων δὲ τὰ σωματικά ἡδέα διώκουσιν, 5
 ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν καὶ οἶόμενος δεῖν, ὁ δ' οὐκ οἶόμενος.

x Οὐδ' ἅμα φρόνιμον καὶ ἀκρατῆ ἐνδέχεται εἶναι
 τὸν αὐτόν· ἅμα γὰρ φρόνιμος καὶ σπουδαῖος τὸ
 2 ἦθος δέδεικται ὦν. ἔτι οὐ τῷ εἰδέναι μόνον
 φρόνιμος ἀλλὰ καὶ τῷ πρακτικός· ὁ δ' ἀκρατῆς
 οὐ πρακτικός. (τὸν δὲ δεινὸν οὐδὲν κωλύει 10
 ἀκρατῆ εἶναι—διὸ καὶ δοκοῦσιν ἐνίοτε φρόνιμοι
 μὲν εἶναί τινες ἀκρατεῖς δέ—διὰ τὸ τὴν δεινότητα
 διαφέρειν τῆς φρονήσεως τὸν εἰρημένον τρόπον
 ἐν τοῖς πρώτοις λόγοις, καὶ κατὰ μὲν τὸν λόγον
 ἐγγὺς εἶναι, διαφέρειν δὲ κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν.)
 3 οὐδὲ δὴ ὡς ὁ εἰδὼς καὶ θεωρῶν, ἀλλ' ὡς ὁ καθ- 15
 εὖδων ἢ οἰνωμένος. καὶ ἐκὼν μὲν (τρόπον γὰρ
 τινα εἰδὼς καὶ ὁ ποιεῖ καὶ οὗ ἔνεκα), πονηρὸς δ'
 οὐ· ἡ γὰρ προαίρεσις ἐπιεικῆς· ὥσθ' ἡμιπόνηρος.
 καὶ οὐκ ἄδικος· οὐ γὰρ ἐπίβουλος· ὁ μὲν γὰρ
 αὐτῶν οὐκ ἐμμενετικός οἷς ἂν βουλευέσθαι, ὁ
 δὲ μελαγχολικὸς οὐδὲ βουλευτικός ὅλως. καὶ
 ἔοικε δὴ ὁ ἀκρατῆς πόλει ἢ ψηφίζεται μὲν ἅπαντα 20

^a Cf. vi. xiii. 6.

^b This parenthesis would come better before the preceding sentence.

^c Cf. vi. xii. 9.

^d Or perhaps, with the Aldine scholiast, 'in definition.'

^e Cf. c. vi. 3.

whereas the self-restrained man does feel pleasure in such things, but does not yield to it. There is also a resemblance between the unrestrained man and the profligate, though they are really distinct: both pursue bodily pleasures, but the profligate thinks it right to do so, the man who lacks self-restraint does not.

- x Again, the same person cannot be at once unrestrained and prudent, for it has been shown^a that
- 2 Prudence is inseparable from Moral Virtue. Also, Prudence does not consist only in knowing what is right, but also in doing it; but the unrestrained man does not do the right.^b (Cleverness on the other hand is not incompatible with Unrestraint—which is why it is sometimes thought that some people are prudent and yet unrestrained—because Cleverness differs from Prudence in the manner explained in our first discourse^c: as being intellectual faculties^d they are closely akin, but they differ in that Prudence involves deliberate choice.) Nor indeed does the unrestrained man even know the right in the sense of one who consciously exercises his knowledge, but only as a man asleep or drunk can be said to know something. Also, although he errs willingly (for he knows in a sense both what he is doing and what end he is aiming at), yet he is not wicked, for his moral choice is sound, so that he is only half-wicked. And he is not unjust, for he does not deliberately design to do harm,^e since the one type of unrestrained person does not keep to the resolve he has formed after deliberation, and the other, the excitable type, does not deliberate at all. In fact the unrestrained man resembles a state which passes all the proper

(4) Addenda as to Unrestraint: (a) incompatible with Prudence, though not with Cleverness;

(b) not a Vice, because its intention is virtuous, and it does not deliberately wrong others;

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τὰ δέοντα καὶ νόμους ἔχει σπουδαίους, χρήται δὲ οὐδέν, ὥσπερ Ἀναξανδρίδης ἔσκωψεν

ἡ πόλις ἐβοῦλεθ', ἥ νόμων οὐδὲν μέλει·

4 ὁ δὲ πονηρὸς χρωμένη μὲν τοῖς νόμοις, πονηροῖς δὲ χρωμένη. ἔστι δ' ἀκρασία καὶ ἐγκράτεια περὶ ²⁵ τὸ ὑπερβάλλον τῆς τῶν πολλῶν ἕξεως· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἐμμένει μᾶλλον ὁ δ' ἥττον τῆς τῶν πλείστων δυνάμεως. εὐϊατοτέρα δὲ τῶν ἀκρασιῶν ἦν οἱ μελαγχολικοὶ ἀκρατεύονται τῶν βουλευομένων μὲν μὴ ἐμμενόντων δέ· καὶ οἱ δι' ἐθισμοῦ ἀκρατεῖς τῶν φυσικῶν,¹ ῥᾶον γὰρ ἔθος μετακινήσαι φύσεως· ³⁰ διὰ γὰρ τοῦτο καὶ τὸ ἔθος χαλεπὸν, ὅτι τῇ φύσει ἔοικεν, ὥσπερ καὶ Εὐήνος λέγει

φημὶ πολυχρόνιον μελέτην ἔμεναι, φίλε, καὶ δὴ ταύτην ἀνθρώποισι τελευτῶσαν φύσιν εἶναι.

5 Τί μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ἐγκράτεια καὶ τί ἀκρασία καὶ τί καρτερία καὶ τί μαλακία, καὶ πῶς ἔχουσιν αἱ ἕξεις αὗται πρὸς ἀλλήλας, εἴρηται.

xi Περὶ δὲ ἡδονῆς καὶ λύπης θεωρῆσαι τοῦ τὴν ¹¹⁵² πολιτικὴν φιλοσοφοῦντος· οὗτος γὰρ τοῦ τέλους ἀρχιτέκτων πρὸς ὃ βλέποντες ἕκαστον τὸ μὲν ² κακὸν τὸ δ' ἀγαθὸν ἀπλῶς λέγομεν. ἔτι δὲ καὶ τῶν ἀναγκαίων ἐπισκέψασθαι περὶ αὐτῶν· τὴν ⁵

¹ φύσει Ramsauer.

^a i.e., 'habit is': the subject of ἔμεναι seems to have been ἔθος in the preceding verse.

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enactments, and has good laws, but which never keeps its laws : the condition of things satirized by Anaxandrides—

The state, that recks not of the laws, would fain . . .

4 whereas the bad man is like a state which keeps its laws but whose laws are bad.

Both Self-restraint and Unrestraint are a matter of extremes as compared with the character of the mass of mankind ; the restrained man shows more and the unrestrained man less steadfastness than most men are capable of.

Reformation is more possible with that type of Unrestraint which is displayed by persons of an excitable temperament than it is with those who deliberate as to what they ought to do, but do not keep to the resolution they form. And those who have become unrestrained through habit are more easily cured than those who are unrestrained by nature, since habit is easier to change than nature ; for even habit is hard to change, precisely because it is a sort of nature, as Evenus says :

Mark me, my friend, 'tis a long-continued training,
And training in the end becomes men's nature.

5 We have now discussed the nature of Self-restraint and Unrestraint, and of Endurance and Softness, and have shown how these dispositions are related to one another.

xi It is also the business of the political philosopher to examine the nature of Pleasure and Pain ; for he is the master-craftsman, and lays down the end which is the standard whereby we pronounce things good or bad in the absolute sense. Moreover this investigation is fundamental for our study, because

(c) the impetuous kind more easily cured

cc. xi-xv. Pleasure (cf. Bk. X. i-v). c. xi. Ethical importance of Pleasure and Pain.

ARISTOTLE

τε γὰρ ἀρετὴν καὶ τὴν κακίαν τὴν ἠθικὴν περὶ
 λύπας καὶ ἡδονὰς ἔθεμεν, καὶ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν
 οἱ πλείστοι μεθ' ἡδονῆς εἶναι φασιν, διὸ καὶ
 3 τὸν μακάριον ὠνομάκασιν ἀπὸ τοῦ χαίρειν. τρῖς
 μὲν οὖν δοκεῖ οὐδεμία ἡδονὴ εἶναι ἀγαθόν, οὔτε
 καθ' αὐτὸ οὔτε κατὰ συμβεβηκός· οὐ γὰρ εἶναι
 ταῦτόν τὸ¹ ἀγαθόν καὶ ἡδονήν· τοῖς δ' ἔναι μὲν ¹⁰
 εἶναι, αἱ δὲ πολλαὶ φαῦλαι. ἔτι δὲ τούτων τρίτον,
 εἰ καὶ πᾶσαι ἀγαθόν, ὅμως μὴ ἐνδέχεσθαι εἶναι
 4 τὸ ἄριστον ἡδονήν. ὅλως μὲν οὖν οὐκ ἀγαθόν,
 ὅτι πᾶσα ἡδονὴ γένεσις ἐστὶν εἰς φύσιν αἰσθητή,²
 οὐδεμία δὲ γένεσις συγγενῆς τοῖς τέλεσιν, οἷον
 οὐδεμία οἰκοδόμησις οἰκία. ἔτι ὁ σώφρων φεύγει ¹⁵
 τὰς ἡδονὰς. ἔτι ὁ φρόνιμος τὸ ἄλυπον διώκει, οὐ
 τὸ ἡδύ. ἔτι ἐμπόδιον τῷ φρονεῖν αἱ ἡδοναί, καὶ
 ὅσω μᾶλλον χαίρει, μᾶλλον, οἷον τὴν τῶν ἀφρο-
 δισίων· οὐδένα γὰρ ἂν δύνασθαι νοῆσαι τι ἐν
 αὐτῇ. ἔτι τέχνη οὐδεμία ἡδονῆς· καίτοι πᾶν
 ἀγαθὸν τέχνης ἔργον. ἔτι παιδία καὶ θηρία ²⁰

¹ τὸ add. K^b.² αἰσθητὴν K^b.^a II. iii. 1.^b With this false etymology cf. v. iv. 9.^c Of these three views, the first is that of Speusippus, Plato's successor as head of the Academy; the second is that of Plato's *Philebus*; the third, which appears at the end of the *Philebus*, is that of Aristotle in Book X. below.

we have established^a that Moral Virtue and Vice are concerned with pleasures and pains, and most people hold that pleasure is a necessary adjunct of Happiness, which is why the word denoting 'supreme bliss' is derived from the verb meaning 'to enjoy.'^b

- 3 Now (1) some people think that no pleasure is a good thing, whether essentially or accidentally. They argue that Good and Pleasure are two distinct things.

Three current opinions about Pleasure, and the arguments for them.

(2) Others hold that though some pleasures are good, most are bad.

(3) There is also a third view, that even if all pleasures are good, nevertheless pleasure cannot be the Supreme Good.^c

- 4 (1) To prove that pleasure is not a good at all, it is argued that

(a) Every pleasure is a conscious process towards a natural state; but a process can in no case belong to the same order of things as its end; for example, the process of building cannot be a thing of the same sort as the house built.

(b) The temperate man avoids pleasures.

(c) The prudent man pursues freedom from pain, not pleasure.

(d) Pleasures are a hindrance to prudent deliberation, and the more so the more enjoyable they are; for instance, sexual pleasure: no one could think of anything while indulging in it.

(e) There is no art of pleasure; yet with every good thing there is an art which produces it.

(f) Children and animals pursue pleasures.

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5 διώκει τὰς ἡδονάς. τοῦ δὲ μὴ πάσας σπουδαίας,
 ὅτι εἰσὶ καὶ αἰσχροὶ καὶ ὀνειδιζόμεναι, καὶ ὅτι¹
 βλαβεραί, νοσώδη γὰρ ἔνια τῶν ἡδέων. ὅτι δ'
 οὐ τᾶριστον² ἢ ἡδονή, ὅτι οὐ τέλος ἀλλὰ γένεσις.
 τὰ μὲν οὖν λεγόμενα σχεδὸν ταῦτ' ἐστίν.

- xii "Οτι δ' οὐ συμβαίνει διὰ ταῦτα μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν²⁵
 μηδὲ τὸ ἄριστον, ἐκ τῶνδε δῆλον. πρῶτον μὲν,
 ἐπεὶ τὸ ἀγαθὸν διχῶς (τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἀπλῶς τὸ δὲ
 τινί), καὶ αἱ φύσεις καὶ αἱ ἕξεις ἀκολουθήσουσιν,
 ὥστε καὶ αἱ κινήσεις καὶ αἱ γενέσεις· καὶ αἱ
 φαῦλαι δοκοῦσαι εἶναι αἱ μὲν ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι³
 τινὶ δ' οὐ⁴ ἀλλ' αἵρεται τῷδε, ἔνια δ' οὐδὲ τῷδε³⁰
 ἀλλὰ ποτὲ καὶ ὀλίγον χρόνον, αἵρεται δ' οὐ· αἱ
 δὲ οὐδ' ἡδοναί, ἀλλὰ φαίνονται, ὅσαι μετὰ λύπης
 καὶ ἰατρείας ἔνεκεν, οἷον αἱ τῶν καμνόντων.—
 2 ἔτι ἐπεὶ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ τὸ μὲν ἐνέργεια τὸ δ' ἕξις,
 κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς αἱ καθιστᾶσαι εἰς τὴν φυσικὴν
 ἕξιν ἡδεῖαί εἰσιν· ἔστι δ' ἡ ἐνέργεια ἐν ταῖς ἐπι-³⁵

¹ ἔτι L^b.

² οὐ τᾶριστον Spengel: οὐκ ἄριστον.

³ ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι <αἱ δὲ τινὶ μὲν φαῦλαι> Rassow.

⁴ <ἀπλῶς> δ' οὐ Asp., <αἱ> δ' οὐ Rassow.

^a Certain 'felt processes towards a natural state' (c. xi. 4), which are obviously not good, are not really pleasant either.

5 (2) To prove that not all pleasures are good, it is argued that

(a) Some pleasures are disgraceful, and discredit the man who indulges in them.

(b) Some pleasures are harmful, for certain pleasant things cause disease.

(3) To prove that pleasure is not the Supreme Good, it is argued that it is not an end but a process.

These then, more or less, are the current views.

xii But the following considerations will show that these arguments are not conclusive to prove (1) that pleasure is not a good at all, nor (3) that it is not the Supreme Good. Refutation of arguments for the first opinion, that no pleasure is good.

(1) (a) In the first place (i.) 'the good' has two meanings: it means both that which is good absolutely, and that which is good for somebody, or relatively. Consequently the term 'good' has the same double meaning when applied to men's natures and dispositions; and therefore also when applied to movements and to processes. Also those processes which are thought to be bad will in some cases, though bad absolutely, be not bad relatively, but in fact desirable for a particular person, or in other cases, though not even desirable generally for the particular person, nevertheless desirable for him in particular circumstances and for a short time, although not really desirable. And some such processes ^a are not really pleasures at all, but only seem to be so: I mean the painful processes that are undergone for their curative effects, for instance, treatment applied to the sick.

2 Again (ii.), the good is either an *activity* or a *state*. Now the pleasures that restore us to our natural *state* are only accidentally pleasant; while

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θυμίας τῆς ὑπολοίπου ἕξεως καὶ φύσεως, ἐπεὶ καὶ ἄνευ λύπης καὶ ἐπιθυμίας εἰσὶν ἡδοναί (οἷον 1153 a ἢ τοῦ θεωρεῖν [ἐνέργεια]¹), τῆς φύσεως οὐκ ἐνδεοῦς οὔσης. σημεῖον δ' ὅτι οὐ τῷ αὐτῷ [ἡδῇ]² χαίρουσιν ἀναπληρουμένης τε τῆς φύσεως καὶ <ἡδῇ>³ καθεστηκυίας, ἀλλὰ καθεστηκυίας μὲν τοῖς ἀπλῶς ἡδέσιν, ἀναπληρουμένης δὲ καὶ τοῖς ἐναντίοις· καὶ γὰρ ὀξέσι καὶ πικροῖς χαίρουσιν, 5 ὧν οὐδὲν οὔτε φύσει ἡδὺ οὔθ' ἀπλῶς ἡδύ· ὥστ' οὐδ' <αἷ>³ ἡδοναί· ὡς γὰρ τὰ ἡδέα πρὸς ἄλληλα διέστηκεν,⁴ οὕτω καὶ αἱ ἡδοναὶ αἱ ἀπὸ τούτων.—

3 ἔτι οὐκ ἀνάγκη ἕτερόν τι εἶναι βέλτιον τῆς ἡδονῆς, ὥσπερ τινές φασι τὸ τέλος τῆς γενέσεως· οὐ γὰρ γενέσεις εἰσὶν, οὐδὲ μετὰ γενέσεως πᾶσαι, ἀλλ' 10 ἐνέργειαι καὶ τέλος· οὐδὲ γινομένων συμβαίνουσιν, ἀλλὰ χρωμένων· καὶ τέλος οὐ πασῶν ἕτερόν τι, ἀλλὰ τῶν εἰς τὴν τελέωσιν ἀγομένων⁵ τῆς φύσεως. διὸ καὶ οὐ καλῶς ἔχει τὸ αἰσθητὴν γενέσιν φάναι εἶναι τὴν ἡδονήν, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον λεκτέον ἐνέργειαν τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἕξεως, ἀντὶ δὲ τοῦ αἰσθητὴν 15 ἀνεμπόδιστον. δοκεῖ δὲ γένεσίς τιςιν⁶ εἶναι ὅτι

¹ Burnet.² [ἡδῇ] ed.: ἡδεῖ M^b et (post χαίρουσιν) L^b.³ ed.⁴ διέστηκεν Bonitz: συνέστηκεν.⁵ ἀγούσων? Richards.⁶ τιςιν Rasso (et fort. Asp.): τις.

the *activity* of desire is the activity of that part of us which has remained in the natural state^a: for that matter, there are some pleasures which do not involve pain or desire at all (for instance, the pleasure of contemplation), being experienced without any deficiency from the normal having occurred. That restorative pleasures are only accidentally pleasant is indicated by the fact that we do not enjoy the same things while the natural state is being replenished as we do after it has been restored to the normal; in the normal state we enjoy things that are absolutely pleasant, but during the process of replenishment we enjoy even their opposites; for instance, sour and bitter things, none of which are naturally or absolutely pleasant, so that the pleasure we get from them is not naturally or absolutely pleasant either, since there is the same distinction between various pleasures as there is between the pleasant things from which they arise.

- 3 Again (iii.), it does not follow, as some argue, that as the end is better than the process towards it, so there must be something better than pleasure. For pleasures are not really processes, nor are they all incidental to a process: they are activities, and therefore an end; nor do they result from the process of acquiring our faculties, but from their exercise; nor have they all of them some end other than themselves: this is only true of the pleasures of progress towards the perfection of our nature. Hence it is not correct to define pleasure as a 'conscious process'; the term should rather be 'activity of our natural state,' and for 'conscious' we must substitute 'unimpeded.' Some thinkers hold that pleasure is a process on the ground that it is good

Definition
of Pleasure.

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κυρίως ἀγαθόν, τὴν γὰρ ἐνέργειαν γένεσιν οἴονται
 4 εἶναι· ἔστι δ' ἕτερον.—τὸ δ' εἶναι φαύλας ὅτι
 νοσώδη ἔνια ἡδέα, τὸ αὐτὸ καὶ ὅτι ὑγιεινὰ ἔνια
 φαῦλα πρὸς χρηματισμόν. ταύτῃ οὖν φαῦλα
 ἄμφω, ἀλλ' οὐ φαῦλα κατὰ γε τοῦτο, ἐπεὶ καὶ τὸ 20
 5 θεωρεῖν ποτὲ βλάπτει πρὸς ὑγίειαν.—ἐμποδίζει δὲ
 οὔτε φρονήσῃ οὔθ' ἔξει οὐδεμιᾷ ἢ ἀφ' ἐκάστης
 ἡδονῇ, ἀλλ' αἱ ἀλλότριαι, ἐπεὶ αἱ ἀπὸ τοῦ θεωρεῖν
 καὶ μαρθάνειν μᾶλλον ποιήσουσι θεωρεῖν καὶ
 6 μαρθάνειν.—τὸ δὲ τέχνης μὴ εἶναι ἔργον ἡδονὴν
 μηδεμιάν¹ εὐλόγως συμβέβηκεν· οὐδὲ γὰρ ἄλλης 25
 ἐνεργείας οὐδεμιᾶς τέχνη ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ τῆς δυνά-
 μεως· καίτοι καὶ ἡ μυρεψικὴ τέχνη καὶ ἡ ὀψο-
 7 ποιητικὴ δοκεῖ ἡδονῆς εἶναι.—τὸ δὲ τὸν σώφρονα
 φεύγειν καὶ τὸν φρόνιμον διώκειν τὸν ἄλυπον
 βίον, καὶ τὸ τὰ παιδία καὶ τὰ θηρία διώκειν, τῷ
 αὐτῷ λύεται πάντα. ἐπεὶ γὰρ εἴρηται πῶς
 ἀγαθαὶ ἀπλῶς καὶ πῶς οὐκ ἀγαθαὶ πᾶσαι αἱ
 ἡδοναί, τὰς τοιαύτας καὶ² τὰ θηρία καὶ τὰ παιδία 30
 διώκει, καὶ τὴν τούτων ἀλυπίαν ὁ φρόνιμος, τὰς
 μετ' ἐπιθυμίας καὶ λύπης καὶ τὰς σωματικὰς
 (τοιαῦται γὰρ αὗται) καὶ τὰς τούτων ὑπερβολάς,

¹ μηδεμιάν ἡδονὴν L^bΓ, fort. μηδεμιᾶς ἡδονὴν ed.

² καὶ add. K^b.

^a i.e., the pleasures arising from the exercise of other qualities.

^b Cf. c. iv. 5.

^c i.e., not good absolutely or in themselves, though good (in moderation) as means to life: the 'necessary' and 'neutral' pleasures of c. iv. 2, 5.

^d i.e., the prudent man both satisfies his natural desire for the bodily pleasures in moderation, and trains himself not to mind their absence; but does both not for the sake of pleasure, but to avoid the disturbance of pain.

in the fullest sense, because in their view an activity is a process ; but really an activity is different from a process.

- 4 To argue (2) (b) that pleasures are base because some pleasant things are detrimental to health is the same as to argue that health is bad because some healthy things are bad for the pocket. Both pleasant things and healthy things can be bad in a relative sense, but that does not make them really bad; even contemplation may on occasion be injurious to health. x

- 5 (1) (d) Neither prudence nor any other quality is hampered by its own pleasure, but only by alien pleasures^a; the pleasures of contemplation and study will enable us to contemplate and study better.

- 6 (1) (e) That there should be no art devoted to the production of any form of pleasure is only natural; an art never produces an activity, but the capacity for an activity. Though in point of fact the arts of perfumery and cookery are generally considered to be arts of pleasure. x

- 7 The arguments (1) (b) that the temperate man avoids pleasure, and (1) (c) that the prudent man pursues freedom from pain, and (1) (f) that animals and children pursue pleasure, are all met by the same reply. It has been explained^b how some pleasures are absolutely good, and how not all pleasures are good.^c Now it is those pleasures which are not absolutely good that both animals and children pursue, and it is freedom from pain arising from the want of those pleasures that the prudent man pursues^d: that is, the pleasures that involve desire and pain, namely the bodily pleasures (for these are of that nature), or their excessive forms,

καθ' ὅς ὁ ἀκόλαστος ἀκόλαστος. διὸ ὁ σώφρων
φεύγει ταύτας, ἐπεὶ εἰσὶν ἡδοναὶ καὶ σώφρωνος. 35

xiii Ἀλλὰ μὴν ὅτι καὶ ἡ λύπη κακόν, ὁμολογεῖται, 1153 b
καὶ φευκτόν· ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἀπλῶς κακόν, ἡ δὲ τῷ
πῇ ἐμποδιστική. τῷ δὲ φευκτῷ τὸ ἐναντίον ἢ
φευκτόν τι¹ καὶ κακόν, ἀγαθόν. ἀνάγκη οὖν τὴν
ἡδονὴν ἀγαθόν τι εἶναι. ὥς γὰρ Σπεύσιππος ἔλυνεν, 5
οὐ συμβαίνει ἡ λύσις, ὥσπερ τὸ μείζον τῷ ἐλάτ-
τονι καὶ τῷ ἴσῳ ἐναντίον· οὐ γὰρ ἂν φαίη ὅπερ
2 κακόν τι εἶναι τὴν ἡδονήν.—τᾶριστον² δ' οὐδὲν
κωλύει ἡδονὴν τινα εἶναι, εἰ ἔνιαι φαῦλαι ἡδοναί,
ὥσπερ καὶ ἐπιστήμην τινὰ ἐνίων φαύλων οὐσῶν.
ἴσως δὲ καὶ ἀναγκαῖον, εἴπερ ἐκάστης ἕξεώς 10
εἰσιν ἐνέργειαι ἀνεμπόδιστοι, εἴθ' ἡ πασῶν ἐνέργειά
ἐστὶν εὐδαιμονία εἴτε ἡ τινὸς αὐτῶν, ἢ ἡ ἀνεμ-
πόδιστος, αἰρετωτάτην εἶναι· τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶν ἡδονή·
ὥστε εἴη ἂν τις ἡδονὴ τὸ ἄριστον, τῶν πολλῶν
ἡδονῶν φαύλων οὐσῶν, εἰ ἔτυχεν, ἀπλῶς. καὶ
διὰ τοῦτο πάντες τὸν εὐδαίμονα ἡδὺν οἴονται
βίον εἶναι, καὶ ἐμπλέκουσι τὴν ἡδονὴν εἰς τὴν 15
εὐδαιμονίαν, ἐθλόγως· οὐδεμίαν γὰρ ἐνέργειαν τέ-
λειος ἐμποδιζομένην, ἢ δ' εὐδαιμονία τῶν τελείων·

¹ τ ε L^b.

² δ' Γ : τ.

² τᾶριστον Spengel : ἄριστον.

^a See more fully, x. ii. 5.

in regard to which Profligacy is displayed. That is why the temperate man avoids excessive bodily pleasures : for even the temperate man has pleasures.

- xiii That pain moreover is an evil and to be avoided is admitted ; since all pain is either absolutely evil, or evil as being in some way an impediment to activity. But that which is the opposite of something to be avoided—opposed to it as a thing to be avoided and evil—must be good. It follows therefore that pleasure is a good. Speusippus attempted to refute this argument^a by saying that, as the greater is opposed to the equal as well as to the less, so pleasure is opposed to a neutral state of feeling as well as to pain. But this refutation does not hold good ; for Speusippus would not maintain that pleasure is essentially evil.

Refutation of the first opinion concluded. Pleasure is a good.

- 2 But granting (2) that some pleasures are bad, it does not therefore follow (3) that a certain pleasure may not nevertheless be the Supreme Good ; just as a certain form of knowledge may be supremely good, although some forms of knowledge are bad. On the contrary (i) since every faculty has its unimpeded activity, the activity of all the faculties, or of one of them (whichever constitutes Happiness), when unimpeded, must probably be the most desirable thing there is ; but an unimpeded activity is a pleasure ; so that on this showing the Supreme Good will be a particular kind of pleasure, even though most pleasures are bad, and, it may be, bad absolutely. This is why everybody thinks that the happy life must be a pleasant life, and regards pleasure as a necessary ingredient of happiness ; and with good reason, since no impeded activity is perfect, whereas Happiness is essentially perfect ; so that the happy

Refutation of the third opinion, that Pleasure cannot be the Supreme Good.

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διὸ προσδεῖται ὁ εὐδαίμων τῶν ἐν σώματι ἀγαθῶν
καὶ τῶν ἐκτὸς καὶ τῆς τύχης, ὅπως μὴ ἐμποδίζηται
3 <διὰ>¹ ταῦτα. (οἱ δὲ² τὸν τροχιζόμενον καὶ τὸν
δυστυχίαις μεγάλαις περιπίπτοντα εὐδαίμονα φά- 20
σκοντες εἶναι ἐὰν ᾗ ἀγαθός, ἢ ἐκόντες ἢ ἄκουπτες
4 οὐδὲν λέγουσιν.) διὰ δὲ τὸ προσδεῖσθαι τῆς ψυχῆς
δοκεῖ τισὶ ταῦτόν εἶναι ἢ εὐτυχία τῇ εὐδαιμονίᾳ,
οὐκ οὔσα, ἐπεὶ καὶ αὐτῇ³ ὑπερβάλλουσα ἐμπόδιός
ἐστίν, καὶ ἴσως οὐκέτι εὐτυχίαν καλεῖν δίκαιον·
5 πρὸς γὰρ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν ὁ ὅρος αὐτῆς. — καὶ 25
τὸ διώκειν δ' ἅπαντα καὶ θηρία καὶ ἀνθρώπους
τὴν ἡδονὴν σημείον τι τοῦ εἶναί πως τὸ ἄριστον
αὐτήν·

φήμη δ' οὔτις⁴ πάμπαν ἀπόλλυται, ἣν τινα λαοὶ
πολλοὶ . . .

6 ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ οὐχ ἡ αὐτὴ οὔτε φύσις οὔθ' ἕξις ἢ ἀρίστη
οὔτ' ἔστιν οὔτε δοκεῖ, οὐδ' ἡδονὴν διώκουσι τὴν
αὐτὴν πάντες, ἡδονὴν μέντοι πάντες. ἴσως δὲ 30
καὶ διώκουσιν οὐχ ἣν οἴονται οὐδ' ἣν ἂν φαῖεν,
ἀλλὰ τὴν αὐτήν· πάντα γὰρ φύσει ἔχει τι θεῖον.
ἀλλ' εἰλήφασιν τὴν τοῦ ὀνόματος κληρονομίαν αἱ
σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ διὰ τὸ πλειστάκις τε παρα-
βάλλειν εἰς αὐτὰς καὶ πάντας μετέχειν αὐτῶν· 35
διὰ τὸ μόνας οὖν γνωρίμους εἶναι ταύτας μόνας⁵
7 οἴονται εἶναι. φανερόν δὲ καὶ ὅτι, εἰ μὴ ἡ⁵ 1154 a

¹ Coraes.² δὴ ed.: δέ.³ αὐτῇ L^b.⁴ οὔτις K^b: οὐ τι γε.⁵ ἡ add. M^b Asp.^a Probably the Cynics.^b Hesiod, *Works and Days*, 763; the couplet ends,
πολλοὶ φημίζουσι· θεός νύ τις ἐστὶ καὶ αὐτὴ (vox populi vox dei).^c Cf. x. ii. 4.

- man requires in addition the goods of the body, external goods and the gifts of fortune, in order that his activity may not be impeded through lack
 3 of them. (Consequently those who say^a that, if a man be good, he will be happy even when on the rack, or when fallen into the direst misfortune, are intentionally or unintentionally talking nonsense.)
 4 But because Happiness requires the gifts of fortune in addition, some people think that it is the same thing as good fortune ; but this is not so, since even good fortune itself when excessive is an impediment to activity, and perhaps indeed no longer deserves to be called good fortune, since good fortune can only be defined in relation to Happiness.
 5 (ii.) Moreover, that all animals and all human beings pursue pleasure is some indication that it is in a sense the Supreme Good :

No rumour noised abroad by many tongues
 Comes utterly to naught.^b

- 6 But they do not all pursue the same pleasure, since the natural state and the best state neither is nor seems to be the same for them all ; yet still they all pursue pleasure. Indeed it is possible that in reality they do not pursue the pleasure which they think and would say they do, but all the same pleasure ; for nature has implanted in all things something divine.^c But as the pleasures of the body are the ones which we most often meet with, and as all men are capable of these, these have usurped the family title ; and so men think these are the only pleasures that exist, because they are the only ones which they know.
 7 (iii.) Moreover, it is clear that if pleasure is not

ἡδονὴ ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἡ ἐνέργεια <ἡδονή>,¹ οὐκ ἔσται ζῆν ἡδέως τὸν εὐδαίμονα· τίνος γὰρ ἔνεκα δέοι ἂν αὐτῆς, εἴπερ μὴ ἀγαθόν; ἀλλὰ καὶ λυπηρῶς ἐνδέχεται ζῆν· οὔτε κακὸν γὰρ οὔτ' ἀγαθὸν ἡ λύπη, εἴπερ μὴδ' ἡδονή, ὥστε διὰ τί ἂν φεύγοι; 5 οὐδὲ δὴ ἡδίων ὁ βίος ὁ τοῦ σπουδαίου, εἰ μὴ καὶ αἱ ἐνέργειαι αὐτοῦ.

- xiv Περὶ δὲ δὴ τῶν σωματικῶν ἡδονῶν ἐπισκεπτέον πῶς λέγουσιν ὅτι ἔνιαί γε ἡδοναὶ αἰρεταὶ σφόδρα, οἷον αἱ καλαί, ἀλλ' οὐχ αἱ σωματικαὶ καὶ περὶ 10 2 αἷς ὁ ἀκόλαστος. διὰ τί οὖν αἱ ἐναντίαι λῦπαι μοχθηραί; κακῶ γὰρ ἀγαθὸν ἐναντίον. ἢ οὕτως ἀγαθαὶ αἱ ἀναγκαῖαι, ὅτι καὶ τὸ μὴ κακὸν ἀγαθὸν ἔστιν; ἢ μέχρι τοῦ ἀγαθαί; τῶν μὲν γὰρ ἕξεων καὶ κινήσεων ὅσων μὴ ἔστι τοῦ βελτίονος² ὑπερβολή, οὐδὲ τῆς ἡδονῆς, ὅσων δ' ἔστί, καὶ τῆς 15 ἡδονῆς. ἔστιν δὲ τῶν³ σωματικῶν ἀγαθῶν⁴ ὑπερβολή, καὶ ὁ φαῦλος τῷ διώκειν τὴν ὑπερβολὴν ἔστιν, ἀλλ' οὐ τὰς ἀναγκαίας· πάντες γὰρ χαίρουσιν πῶς καὶ ὄψοις καὶ οἴνοις καὶ ἀφροδισίοις, ἀλλ' οὐχ ὡς δεῖ. ἐναντίως δ' ἐπὶ τῆς λύπης· οὐ γὰρ τὴν ὑπερβολὴν φεύγει, ἀλλ' ὅλως· οὐ γάρ ἔστι 20 τῇ ὑπερβολῇ λύπη ἐναντία ἀλλ' ἢ τῷ διώκοντι τὴν ὑπερβολὴν.
- 3 Ἐπεὶ δ' οὐ μόνον δεῖ τἀληθὲς εἰπεῖν ἀλλὰ καὶ

¹ Richards.

² τοῦ βελτίονος secl. Chandler.

³ δὲ τῶν K^b: τῶν δὲ.

⁴ ἀγαθῶν ἐστὶν L^b.

^a The mss. give 'if pleasure and activity are not good.'

^b Whereas bodily pleasure is good in moderation and bad only in excess, all pain is bad; but this does not mean

good and activity is not pleasure,^a the life of the happy man will not necessarily be pleasant. For why should he need pleasure if it is not good? On the contrary, his life may even be painful; for if pleasure is neither good nor evil, no more is pain either, so why should he avoid it? And if the good man's activities are not pleasanter than those of others, his life will not be pleasanter either.

- xiv On the subject of the bodily pleasures, we must examine the view of those who say that though it is true that some pleasures, which they call the noble pleasures, are highly desirable, yet bodily pleasures and those which are the objects of the profligate are not desirable. If so, why are the pains opposed to them evil? since the opposite of evil is good. Perhaps the true view is, that the necessary pleasures are good in the sense that what is not evil is good; or that they are good up to a point: for though you cannot have excessive pleasure from states and movements which cannot themselves be in excess of what is good, you can have excessive pleasure from those which themselves admit of excess. Now you can have an excess of the bodily goods; and it is pursuing this excess that makes a bad man, not pursuing the necessary pleasures, for everybody enjoys savoury food, wine, and sexual pleasure in some degree, though not everybody to the right degree. With pain it is the other way about^b: one avoids not merely excessive pain, but all pain; for the opposite of excessive pleasure is not pain at all, except to the man who pursues excessive pleasure.

Bodily pleasures good in moderation;

- 3 We ought however not only to state the true that the absence of excessive pleasure is bad, for it is not painful to the good man.

τὸ αἴτιον τοῦ ψεύδους—τοῦτο γὰρ συμβάλλεται
 πρὸς τὴν πίστιν· ὅταν γὰρ εὐλογον¹ φανῇ τὸ διὰ
 τί φαίνεται ἀληθές οὐκ ὄν ἀληθές, πιστεύειν ποιεῖ 25
 τῷ ἀληθεῖ μᾶλλον—ὥστε λεκτέον διὰ τί φαίνονται
 4 αἱ σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ αἰρετώτεραι. πρῶτον² μὲν
 οὖν δὴ ὅτι ἐκκρούει τὴν λύπην· καὶ διὰ τὰς ὑπερ-
 βολὰς τῆς λύπης, ὡς οὔσης ἰατρείας, τὴν ἡδονὴν
 διώκουσι τὴν ὑπερβάλλουσαν καὶ ὅλως τὴν σω-
 ματικὴν. σφοδραὶ δὲ γίνονται αἱ ἰατροίαι, διὸ 30
 καὶ διώκονται, διὰ τὸ παρὰ τὸ ἐναντίον φαίνεσθαι.
 (καὶ οὐ σπουδαῖον δὴ δοκεῖ ἡ ἡδονὴ διὰ δύο
 ταῦτα, ὥσπερ εἴρηται, ὅτι αἱ μὲν φαύλης φύσεώς
 εἰσι πράξεις, ἢ ἐκ γενετῆς, ὥσπερ θηρίου, ἢ δι'
 ἔθος, οἷον αἱ τῶν φαύλων ἀνθρώπων, αἱ δ' ἰατροίαι,
 [ὅτι]² ἐνδεοῦς, καὶ ἔχειν βέλτιον ἢ γίνεσθαι. αἱ 1154
 δὲ συμβαίνουνσι τελευομένων, κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς
 5 οὖν σπουδαῖαι.) ἔτι διώκονται διὰ τὸ σφοδραὶ
 εἶναι ὑπὸ τῶν ἄλλαις μὴ δυναμένων χαίρειν
 (αὐτοὶ γοῦν αὐτοῖς δίψας τινές³ παρασκευάζουσιν).
 ὅταν μὲν οὖν ἀβλαβεῖς, ἀνεπιτίμητον, ὅταν δὲ 5
 βλαβεραί,⁴ φαῦλον. οὔτε γὰρ ἔχουσιν ἕτερα ἐφ'
 οἷς χαίρουσιν, τό τε μηδέτερον πολλοῖς λυπηρόν
 διὰ τὴν φύσιν (αἰεὶ γὰρ πονεῖ τὸ ζῶον, ὥσπερ

¹ εὐλόγως? Richards.² [ὅτι] Bywater: om. Asp.³ τινές? Richards: τινὰς.⁴ βλαβεραὶ L^b: βλαβεράς.

^a The reference is presumably to c. xii. 1, but the two passages do not correspond very closely.

^b Cf. c. vi. 6, note ^a.

^c Or possibly 'that the restorative pleasures imply a defective state.'

view, but also to account for the false one, since to do so helps to confirm the true; for when we have found a probable explanation why something appears to be true though it is not true, this increases our belief in the truth.

but not the
sole good:
reasons for
this mis-
taken view.

We have then to explain why it is that bodily pleasures appear to be more desirable than others.

4 (1) Now the first reason is that pleasure drives out pain; and excessive pain leads men to seek excessive pleasure, and bodily pleasure generally, as a restorative. And these restorative pleasures are intense, and therefore sought for, because they are seen in contrast with their opposite. (The view that pleasure is not a good at all is also due to these two facts, as has been said,^a (a) that some pleasures are actions indicative of an evil nature, whether it be depraved from birth, like the nature of an animal,^b or corrupted by habit, as is the case with evil men, and (b) that others are restoratives of a defective state,^c and to be in the natural state is better than to be in process of returning to it. But as a matter of fact the latter sort of pleasures accompany a process towards perfection, so that accidentally they are good.)

5 (2) Another reason is that bodily pleasures are sought for, just because of their intensity, by people who are incapable of enjoying others (for instance, some deliberately take steps to make themselves thirsty): not that there is any objection to this if the pleasures are innocuous, but it is bad if they are productive of harmful results. The fact is that some men have no other sources of enjoyment; and also many are so constituted that a neutral state of feeling is to them positively painful. (This is because

ARISTOTLE

- καὶ οἱ φυσιολόγοι¹ μαρτυροῦσι, τὸ ὄραν καὶ τὸ
 ἀκούειν φάσκοντες εἶναι λυπηρόν· ἀλλ' ἤδη συν-
 6 ἦθεις ἐσμέν, ὥς φασίν). ὁμοίως δ' ἐν μὲν τῇ νεότητι 10
 διὰ τὴν αὔξησιν ὥσπερ οἱ οἰνωμένοι διάκεινται·
 καὶ ἡδὺ ἡ νεότης. οἱ δὲ μελαγχολικοὶ τὴν φύσιν
 αἰεὶ δέονται ἰατρείας· καὶ γὰρ τὸ σῶμα δακνόμενον
 διατελεῖ διὰ τὴν κρᾶσιν, καὶ αἰεὶ ἐν ὀρέξει σφοδρᾷ
 εἰσίν· ἐξελαύνει δὲ ἡδονὴ λύπην ἢ τ' ἐναντία καὶ
 ἡ τυχοῦσα, ἐὰν ᾖ ἰσχυρά. καὶ διὰ ταῦτα ἀκόλαστοι 15
 7 καὶ φαῦλοι γίνονται. αἱ δ' ἄνευ λυπῶν οὐκ
 ἔχουσιν ὑπερβολήν· αὗται δὲ² τῶν φύσει ἡδέων
 καὶ μὴ κατὰ συμβεβηκός. λέγω δὲ κατὰ συμ-
 βεβηκός ἡδέα τὰ ἰατρεύοντα· ὅτι γὰρ συμβαίνει
 ἰατρεύεσθαι τοῦ ὑπομένουτος ὑγιούς πράττοντός τι,
 διὰ τοῦτο ἡδὺ δοκεῖ εἶναι· φύσει δ' ἡδέα, ἃ ποιεῖ 20
 πράξιν τῆς τοιαύσδε φύσεως.
- 8 Οὐκ αἰεὶ δ' οὐθὲν ἡδὺ τὸ αὐτό, διὰ τὸ μὴ ἀπλήν
 ἡμῶν εἶναι τὴν φύσιν, ἀλλ' ἐνεῖναί τι καὶ ἕτερον
 (καθὸ φθαρτοί³), ὥστε ἂν τι θάτερον πράττη, τοῦτο
 τῇ ἑτέρᾳ φύσει παρὰ φύσιν, ὅταν δ' ἰσάζῃ, οὔτε
 λυπηρόν δοκεῖ οὔθ' ἡδὺ τὸ πραττόμενον. ἐπεὶ
 εἴ του ἡ φύσις ἀπλῇ εἴη, αἰεὶ ἡ αὐτὴ πράξις 25
 ἡδίστη ἔσται· διὸ ὁ θεὸς αἰεὶ μίαν καὶ ἀπλήν

¹ φυσιολόγοι Asp.: φυσικοὶ K^b, φυσικοὶ λόγοι vulg.

² δὲ K^b: δὲ αἱ.

³ φθαρτοὶ Asp.: φθαρτά.

^a It is this which is really pleasant: see c. xii. 2.

^b i.e., which stimulate the activity of any *ἕξις*, disposition or faculty, which is in its natural state, in contrast with those pleasures which stimulate the restoration of a faculty to its natural state.

a state of strain is the normal condition of an animal organism, as physiology testifies; it tells us that sight and hearing are in fact painful, but we have got used to them in course of time—such is the
6 theory.) Similarly the young are in a condition resembling intoxication, because they are growing; also youth is pleasant in itself. And persons of an excitable nature need a restorative perpetually, because their temperament keeps their bodies in a constant state of irritation, and their appetites are continually active; and any pleasure, if strong, drives out pain, not only the opposite pleasure. This is why excitable men become profligate and vicious.

7 Pleasures unaccompanied by pain, on the other hand—and these are those derived from things naturally and not accidentally pleasant—do not admit of excess. By things accidentally pleasant I mean things taken as restoratives; really their restorative effect is produced by the operation^a of that part of the system which has remained sound, and hence the remedy itself is thought to be pleasant. Those things on the contrary are naturally pleasant which stimulate the activity of a given nature.^b

8 Nothing however can continue to give us pleasure always, because our nature is not simple, but contains a second element (which is what makes us perishable beings), and consequently, whenever one of these two elements is active, its activity runs counter to the nature of the other, while when the two are balanced, their action feels neither painful nor pleasant. Since if any man had a simple nature, the same activity would afford him the greatest pleasure always. Hence God enjoys a single simple pleasure

Pleasure of change due to man's composite nature.

ARISTOTLE

χαίρει ἡδονήν· οὐ γὰρ μόνον κινήσεώς ἐστιν ἐνέργεια ἀλλὰ καὶ ἀκινήσιας, καὶ ἡδονὴ μᾶλλον ἐν ἡρεμίᾳ ἐστὶν ἢ ἐν κινήσει. μεταβολὴ δὲ πάντων γλυκύ[τατον],¹ κατὰ τὸν ποιητὴν, διὰ πονηρίαν τινά· ὥσπερ γὰρ ἄνθρωπος εὐμετάβρολος ³⁰ [ὁ]² πονηρός, καὶ ἡ φύσις ἡ δεομένη μεταβολῆς· οὐ γὰρ ἀπλῇ οὐδ' ἐπιεικῆς.

- 9 Περὶ μὲν οὖν ἐγκρατείας καὶ ἀκρασίας καὶ περὶ ἡδονῆς καὶ λύπης εἴρηται, καὶ τί ἕκαστον καὶ πῶς τὰ μὲν ἀγαθὰ αὐτῶν ἐστὶ τὰ δὲ κακά· λοιπὸν δὲ καὶ περὶ φιλίας ἐροῦμεν.

¹ γλυκύ Asp. (Eur. Or. 234).

² Spengel.

perpetually. For there is not only an activity of motion, but also an activity of immobility, and there is essentially a truer pleasure in rest than in motion. But change in all things is sweet,^a as the poet says, owing to some badness in us ; since just as a changeable man is bad, so also is a nature that needs change ; for it is not simple nor good.

- 9 We have now discussed the nature of Self-restraint and Unrestraint, and of Pleasure and Pain, and have shown in either case in what sense one of the two is good and the other evil. It remains for us to speak of Friendship.

^a Euripides, *Orestes*, 234.

- i Μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα περὶ φιλίας ἔποιτ' ἂν διελθεῖν. 1155 :
 ἔστι γὰρ ἀρετὴ τις ἢ μετ' ἀρετῆς· ἔτι δ' ἀναγ-
 καιότατον εἰς τὸν βίον. ἄνευ γὰρ φίλων οὐδεὶς 5
 ἔλοιτ' ἂν ζῆν ἔχων τὰ λοιπὰ ἀγαθὰ πάντα. καὶ
 γὰρ πλουτοῦσι καὶ ἀρχὰς καὶ δυναστείας κεκτη-
 μένοις δοκεῖ φίλων μάλιστ' εἶναι χρεῖα· τί γὰρ
 ὄφελος τῆς τοιαύτης εὐετηρίας ἀφαιρεθείσης εὐ-
 εργεσίας, ἣ γίννεται μάλιστα καὶ ἐπαινετωτάτῃ
 πρὸς φίλους; ἢ πῶς ἂν τηρηθεῖ καὶ σώζοιτ' 10
 ἄνευ φίλων; ὅσῳ γὰρ πλείων, τοσοῦτ' ἐπισφα-
 2 λεστέρα. ἐν πενίᾳ τε καὶ ταῖς λοιπαῖς δυστυχίαις
 μόνην οἴονται καταφυγὴν εἶναι τοὺς φίλους. καὶ
 νέοις δὲ πρὸς τὸ ἀναμάρτητον καὶ πρεσβυτέροις
 πρὸς θεραπείαν καὶ τὸ ἐλλεῖπον τῆς πράξεως δι'
 ἀσθένειαν βοήθεια,¹ τοῖς τ' ἐν ἀκμῇ πρὸς τὰς 15
 καλὰς πράξεις—σύν τε δύ' ἐρχομένῳ—καὶ γὰρ
 3 νοῆσαι καὶ πράξαι δυνατώτεροι. φύσει τ' ἐν-
 υπάρχειν ἔοικε πρὸς² τὸ γεγεννημένον τῷ γεν-

¹ βοήθεια M^b: βοηθείας (βοηθεῖ Par. 1417).

² πρὸς . . . καὶ om. K^bΓ.

^a φιλία, 'friendship,' sometimes rises to the meaning of affection or love, but also includes any sort of kindly feeling, even that existing between business associates, or fellow-citizens. The corresponding verb means both 'to like' and 'to love'; the adjective is generally passive, 'loved,'

BOOK VIII

- 1 OUR next business after this will be to discuss Friendship.^a For friendship is a virtue,^b or involves virtue ; and also it is one of the most indispensable requirements of life. For no one would choose to live without friends, but possessing all other good things. In fact rich men, rulers and potentates are thought especially to require friends, since what would be the good of their prosperity without an outlet for beneficence, which is displayed in its fullest and most praiseworthy form towards friends ? and how could such prosperity be safeguarded and preserved without friends ? for the greater it is, the
- 2 greater is its insecurity. And in poverty or any other misfortune men think friends are their only resource. Friends are an aid to the young, to guard them from error ; to the elderly, to tend them, and to supplement their failing powers of action ; to those in the prime of life, to assist them in noble deeds—

Bks. VIII., IX. Friendship.
I. Nature and kinds of Friendship, cc. i-viii.
c. i. Introduction : Friendship implies Virtue ; and is valuable as a means to the good life,

When twain together go ^c—

for two are better able both to plan and to execute.

- 3 And the affection of parent for offspring and of ^{as natural,}
- ' liked,' ' dear,' but sometimes active ' loving,' ' liking,' and so on, as a noun ' a friend.'
- ^b That is, the social grace of friendliness described in iv. vi. ; it is there said to be nameless, but it is called *φιλία* at ii. vii. 13.
- ^c•Homer, *Iliad*, x. 224.

ARISTOTLE

- νήσαντι καὶ πρὸς τὸ γεννῆσαν τῷ γεννηθέντι,¹
οὐ μόνον ἐν ἀνθρώποις ἀλλὰ καὶ ἐν ὄρνεσι καὶ
τοῖς πλείστοις ζῶν ζώων, καὶ τοῖς ὁμοεθνεσί
πρὸς ἄλληλα, καὶ μάλιστα τοῖς ἀνθρώποις, ὅθεν²⁰
τοὺς φιланθρώπους ἐπαινοῦμεν. ἴδοι δ' ἂν τις
καὶ ἐν ταῖς πλάναις ὡς οἰκεῖον ἅπας ἄνθρωπος
4 ἀνθρώπῳ καὶ φίλον. ἔοικε δὲ καὶ τὰς πόλεις
συνέχειν ἢ φιλία, καὶ οἱ νομοθέται μᾶλλον περὶ
αὐτὴν σπουδάζειν ἢ τὴν δικαιοσύνην· ἡ γὰρ ὁμό-
νοια ὁμοίον τι τῇ φιλίᾳ ἔοικεν εἶναι, ταύτης δὲ²⁵
μάλιστ' ἐφίενται καὶ τὴν στάσιν ἔχθραν οὔσαν
μάλιστα ἐξελαύνουσιν. καὶ φίλων μὲν ὄντων
οὐδὲν δεῖ δικαιοσύνης, δίκαιοι δ' ὄντες προσ-
δέονται φιλίας, καὶ τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα
5 φιλικὸν εἶναι δοκεῖ. οὐ μόνον δ' ἀναγκαῖον ἐστίν
ἀλλὰ καὶ καλόν· τοὺς γὰρ φιλοφίλους ἐπαινοῦμεν,³⁰
ἢ τε πολυφιλία δοκεῖ τῶν καλῶν ἐν τι εἶναι· καὶ
ἐνιοὶ² τοὺς αὐτοὺς οἶονται ἄνδρας ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι
καὶ φίλους.
- 6 Διαμφισβητεῖται δὲ περὶ αὐτῆς οὐκ ὀλίγα.
οἱ μὲν γὰρ ὁμοιότητά τινα τιθέασιν αὐτὴν καὶ
τοὺς ὁμοίους φίλους, ὅθεν τὸν ὁμοίον φασιν ὡς
τὸν ὁμοιον, καὶ κολοιὸν ποτὶ κολοιόν, καὶ τὰ³
35 τοιαῦτα· οἱ δ' ἐξ ἐναντίας κεραμεῖς πάντας τοὺς^{1155 b}
τοιούτους ἀλλήλοις φασὶν εἶναι. καὶ περὶ αὐτῶν

¹ πρὸς τὸ γεννῆσαν τῷ γεννηθέντι om. L^b.

² ἐνιοι M^b: ἔτι.

³ τὰ: ὅσα M^bΓ.

^a φιλάνθρωπος means 'humane,' 'kindly.'

^b Or possibly, 'And the just are thought to possess friendliness in its highest form.'

^c Literally 'Jackdaw to jackdaw.'

- offspring for parent seems to be a natural instinct, not only in man but also in birds and in most animals ; as also is friendship between members of the same species ; and this is especially strong in the human race ; for which reason we praise those who love their fellow men.^a Even when travelling abroad one can observe that a natural affinity and friendship
- 4 exist between man and man universally. Moreover, friendship appears to be the bond of the state ; and lawgivers seem to set more store by it than they do by justice, for to promote concord, which seems akin to friendship, is their chief aim, while faction, which is enmity, is what they are most anxious to banish. [And if men are friends, there is no need of justice between them ; whereas merely to be just is not enough : a feeling of friendship also is necessary. Indeed the highest form of justice seems to have an element of friendly feeling in it.^b]
- 5 And friendship is not only indispensable as a means, it is also noble in itself. We praise those who love their friends, and it is counted a noble thing to have many friends ; and some people think that a true friend must be a good man.
- 6 But there is much difference of opinion as to the nature of friendship. Some define it as a matter of similarity ; they say that we love those who are like ourselves : whence the proverbs ' Like finds his like,' ' Birds of a feather flock together,'^c and so on. Others on the contrary say that with men who are alike it is always a case of ' two of a trade.'^d Some

as the bond
of society,

and as mor-
ally noble

Three
Difficulties :
1. Does at-
traction
depend on
likeness or
unlikeness ?

^a Literally, ' all such men are potters to each other,' an allusion to Hesiod, *Works and Days*, 25,

καὶ κεραμεὺς κεραμεῖ κοτέει καὶ τέκτονι τέκτων—

' Potter with potter contends, and joiner quarrels with joiner.'

τούτων ἀνώτερον ἐπιζητοῦσι καὶ φυσικώτερον, Εὐριπίδης μὲν φάσκων “ἐρᾶν μὲν ὄμβρου γαῖαν” ξηρανθεῖσαν, “ἐρᾶν δὲ σεμνὸν οὐρανὸν πληρούμενον ὄμβρου πεσεῖν ἐς γαῖαν,” καὶ Ἡράκλειτος τὸ “ἀντίξουν συμφέρον” καὶ “ἐκ τῶν διαφερόντων καλλίστην ἁρμονίαν” καὶ “πάντα κατ’ ἔριν γίνεσθαι”. ἐξ ἐναντίας δὲ τούτοις ἄλλοι τε καὶ Ἐμπεδοκλῆς· τὸ γὰρ ὁμοῖον τοῦ ὁμοίου 7 ἐφίεσθαι. τὰ μὲν οὖν φυσικὰ τῶν ἀπορημάτων ἀφείσθω (οὐ γὰρ οἰκεία τῆς παρούσης σκέψεως). ὅσα δ’ ἐστὶν ἀνθρωπικὰ καὶ ἀνήκει εἰς τὰ ἡθη 10 καὶ τὰ πάθη, ταῦτ’ ἐπισκεψώμεθα, οἷον πότερον ἐν πᾶσι γίνεται φιλία ἢ οὐχ οἷον τε μοχθηροὺς ὄντας φίλους εἶναι, καὶ πότερον ἐν εἶδος τῆς φιλίας ἐστὶν ἢ πλείω. οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἐν οἰόμενοι, ὅτι ἐπιδέχεται τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ τὸ ἥττον, οὐχ ἱκανῶ πεπιστεύκασι σημείω· δέχεται γὰρ τὸ 15 μᾶλλον καὶ τὸ ἥττον καὶ τὰ ἕτερα τῷ εἶδει. εἴρηται δ’ ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν ἔμπροσθεν.

- ii Τάχα δ’ ἂν γένοιτο περὶ αὐτῶν φανερόν γνωρισθέντος τοῦ φιλητοῦ· δοκεῖ γὰρ οὐ πᾶν φιλεῖσθαι ἀλλὰ τὸ φιλητόν, τοῦτο δ’ εἶναι <τὸ>¹ ἀγαθόν ἢ ἡδὺ ἢ χρήσιμον. δόξειε δ’ ἂν χρήσιμον εἶναι δι’ 20 οὐ γίνεται ἀγαθόν τι ἢ ἡδονή, ὥστε φιλητὰ ἂν 2 εἴη τὰ ἀγαθόν τε καὶ τὸ ἡδὺ ὡς τέλη. πότερον οὖν τὰ ἀγαθὸν φιλοῦσιν ἢ τὸ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθόν; διαφωνεῖ γὰρ ἐνίοτε ταῦτα· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ τὸ ἡδύ. δοκεῖ δὴ² τὸ αὐτῷ ἀγαθὸν φιλεῖν ἕκαστος, καὶ εἶναι ἀπλῶς μὲν τὰ ἀγαθὸν φιλητόν, ἕκαστῳ δὲ τὸ 25

¹ Richards.

² δὴ? Bywater: δὲ.

^a Fr. 890 Dindorf, from an unknown play.

^b No passage in the *Ethics* answers exactly to this reference.

try to find a more profound and scientific explanation of the nature of affection. Euripides^a writes that 'Earth yearneth for the rain' when dried up, 'And the majestic Heaven when filled with rain Yearneth to fall to Earth.' Heracleitus says, 'Opposition unites,' and 'The fairest harmony springs from discord,' and 'Tis strife that makes the world go on.' Others maintain the opposite view, notably Empedocles, who declares that 'Like seeks after like.'

- 7 Dismissing then these scientific speculations as not germane to our present enquiry, let us investigate the human aspect of the matter, and examine the questions that relate to man's character and emotions: for instance, whether all men are capable of friendship, or bad men cannot be friends; and whether there is only one sort of friendship or several. Those who hold that all friendship is of the same kind because friendship admits of degree, are relying on an insufficient proof, for things of different kinds also can differ in degree. But this has been discussed before.^b
- ii Perhaps the answer to these questions will appear if we ascertain what sort of things arouse liking or love. It seems that not everything is loved, but only what is lovable, and that this is either what is good, or pleasant, or useful. But useful may be taken to mean productive of some good or of pleasure, so that the class of things lovable as ends is reduced to the good and the pleasant. Then, do men like what is really good, or what is good for them? for sometimes the two may be at variance; and the same with what is pleasant. Now it appears that each person loves what is good for himself, and that while what is really good is lovable absolutely, what is good for a particular person is lovable for that

11 Is friendship only possible between good men?
111 Is it of one kind or several?

Solution of 2nd and 3rd Difficulties (cc. 11-14.)
Three objects of liking: the good, the pleasant, the useful.

ἐκάστω. φιλεῖ δ' ἕκαστος οὐ τὸ ὄν αὐτῷ ἀγαθὸν
 ἀλλὰ τὸ φαινόμενον· διοίσει δ' οὐδέν· ἔσται γάρ
 3 τὸ φιλητὸν φαινόμενον. τριῶν δὴ¹ ὄντων δι'²
 ἃ φιλοῦσιν, ἐπὶ μὲν τῇ τῶν ἀψύχων φιλήσει, οὐ
 λέγεται φιλία· οὐ γάρ ἐστιν ἀντιφίλησις, οὐδὲ
 βούλησις ἐκείνῳ³ ἀγαθοῦ (γελοῖον γὰρ ἴσως τῷ
 οἴνῳ βούλεσθαι τὰγαθὰ, ἀλλ' εἴπερ, σώζεσθαι 30
 βούλεται αὐτόν, ἵνα αὐτὸς ἔχῃ). τῷ δὲ φίλῳ
 φασὶ δεῖν βούλεσθαι τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἕνεκα. τοὺς
 δὲ βουλομένους οὕτω τὰγαθὰ εὖνους λέγουσιν,
 ἐὰν μὴ ταῦτό καὶ παρ' ἐκείνου γίγνηται· εὖνοιαν
 4 γὰρ ἐν ἀντιπεπονηθόσι φιλίαν εἶναι. ἢ προσθετέον
 μὴ λανθάνουσιν; πολλοὶ γάρ εἰσιν εὖνοι οἷς 35
 οὐχ ἑωράκασιν, ὑπολαμβάνουσι δὲ ἐπικεικὲς εἶναι
 ἢ χρησίμους· τοῦτο δὲ ταῦτόν κ' ἐκείνων τις 1156 a
 πάθοι πρὸς τοῦτον· εὖνοι μὲν οὖν οὗτοι φαίνονται
 ἀλλήλοις, φίλους δὲ πῶς ἂν τις εἴποι λανθάνοντας
 ὥς ἔχουσιν ἑαυτοῖς; δεῖ ἄρα εὖνοεῖν ἀλλήλοις
 καὶ βούλεσθαι τὰγαθὰ μὴ λανθάνοντας δι' ἓν τι
 τῶν εἰρημένων. 5

iii. Διαφέρει δὲ ταῦτα ἀλλήλων εἶδει· καὶ αἱ φιλή-
 σεις ἄρα καὶ αἱ φιλίαι. τρία δὴ τὰ τῆς φιλίας

¹ δὴ Spengel: δέ.

² δι' om. K^b.

³ ἐκείνῳ Bywater: ἐκείνων.

person. Further, each person loves not what is really good for himself, but what appears to him to be so; however, this will not affect our argument, for 'lovable' will mean 'what appears lovable.'

- 3 There being then three motives of love, the term Friendship is not applied to love for inanimate objects, since here there is no return of affection, and also no wish for the good of the object (for instance, it would be ridiculous to wish well to a bottle of wine: at the most one wishes that it may keep well, in order that one may have it oneself); whereas we are told that we ought to wish our friend well for his own sake. But persons who wish another good for his own sake, if the feeling is not reciprocated, are merely said to feel goodwill for him: only when mutual is such goodwill termed friendship. And perhaps we should also add the qualification that the feeling of goodwill must be known to its object. For a man often feels goodwill towards persons whom he has never seen, but whom he believes to be good or useful, and one of these persons may also entertain the same feeling towards him. Here then we have a case of two people mutually well-disposed, whom nevertheless we cannot speak of as friends, because they are not aware of each other's regard. [To be friends therefore, men must (1) feel goodwill for each other, that is, wish each other's good, and (2) be aware of each other's goodwill, and (3) the cause of their goodwill must be one of the lovable qualities mentioned above.]

(Definition of Friendship.)

- iii Now these qualities differ in kind; hence the affection or friendship they occasion may differ in kind also. There are accordingly three kinds of friendship, corresponding in number to the three

Three species of Friendship corresponding.

εἶδη, ἰσάριθμα τοῖς φιλητοῖς· καθ' ἕκαστον γάρ
 ἔστιν ἀντιφίλησις οὐ λανθάνουσα, οἱ δὲ φιλοῦντες
 ἀλλήλους βούλονται τὰγαθὰ ἀλλήλοις ταύτῃ ἢ ¹⁰
 φιλοῦσιν. οἱ μὲν οὖν διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλοῦντες
 ἀλλήλους οὐ καθ' αὐτοὺς φιλοῦσιν, ἀλλ' ἢ γίνεταί
 τι αὐτοῖς παρ' ἀλλήλων ἀγαθόν. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ
 οἱ δι' ἡδονήν· οὐ γὰρ τῷ ποιούς τινος εἶναι
 ἀγαπῶσι τοὺς εὐτραπέλους, ἀλλ' ὅτι ἡδεῖς αὐτοῖς.
² οἱ τε δὴ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλοῦντες διὰ τὸ αὐτοῖς
 ἀγαθὸν στέργουσι, καὶ οἱ δι' ἡδονήν διὰ τὸ αὐτοῖς ¹⁵
 ἡδύ, καὶ οὐχ ἢ <ποιός τις>¹ ὁ φιλούμενός ἐστιν,
 ἀλλ' ἢ χρήσιμος ἢ ἡδύς. κατὰ συμβεβηκός τε
 δὴ αἱ φιλίαι αὐταῖ εἰσιν· οὐ γὰρ ἢ ἐστὶν οἷόσπερ²
 ἐστὶν ὁ φιλούμενος, ταύτῃ φιλεῖται, ἀλλ' ἢ πορί-
³ ζουσιν οἱ μὲν ἀγαθόν τι οἱ δ' ἡδονήν. εὐδιάλυτοι
 δὴ αἱ τοιαῦται εἰσι, μὴ διαμενονόντων αὐτῶν ²⁰
 ὁμοίων· ἐὰν γὰρ μηκέτι ἡδεῖς ἢ χρήσιμοι ᾖσι,
 παύονται φιλοῦντες. τὸ δὲ χρήσιμον οὐ δια-
 μένει, ἀλλ' ἄλλοτε ἄλλο γίνεταί. ἀπολυθέντος
 οὖν δι' ὁ φίλοι ἦσαν, διαλύεται καὶ ἡ φιλία, ὥς
⁴ οὔσης τῆς φιλίας πρὸς ἐκείνο. μάλιστα δ' ἐν τοῖς
 πρεσβύταις ἢ τοιαύτῃ δοκεῖ φιλία γίνεσθαι (οὐ ²⁵
 γὰρ τὸ ἡδὺ οἱ τηλικούτοι διώκουσιν ἀλλὰ τὸ
 ὠφέλιμον), καὶ τῶν ἐν ἀκμῇ καὶ νέων ὅσοι τὸ
 συμφέρον διώκουσιν. οὐ πάνυ δ' οἱ τοιούτοι
 οὐδὲ³ συζῶσι μετ' ἀλλήλων· ἐνίστε γὰρ οὐδ'

¹ <ποιός τις> vel <τοιούτος> vel <ἀγαθός> Richards.

² οἷόσπερ Richards: ὅσπερ.

³ οὐδὲ om. L^bΓ.

^a i.e., they wish each other to become more virtuous, pleasant, or useful as the case may be; so that there is a different species of well-wishing in each case.

lovable qualities ; since a reciprocal affection, known to either party, can be based on each of the three, and when men love each other, they wish each other well in respect of the quality which is the ground of their friendship.^a Thus friends whose affection is based on utility do not love each other in themselves, but in so far as some benefit accrues to them from each other. And similarly with those whose friendship is based on pleasure : for instance, we enjoy the society of witty people not because of what they are in themselves, but because they are agreeable to us. Hence in a friendship based on utility or on pleasure men love their friend for their own good or their own pleasure : they love him not for what he is, but for being useful or agreeable. And therefore these friendships are based on an accident, since the friend is not loved for being what he is, but as affording some benefit or pleasure as the case may be. Consequently friendships of this kind are easily broken off, in the event of the parties themselves changing, for if no longer pleasant or useful to each other, they cease to love each other. And utility is not a permanent quality ; it differs at different times. Hence when the motive of the friendship has passed away, the friendship itself is dissolved, having existed merely as a means to that end.

Friendships
of Utility
and of Plea-
sure.

- 4 Friendships of Utility seem to occur most frequently between the old, as in old age men do not pursue pleasure but profit ; and between those persons in the prime of life and young people whose object in life is gain. Friends of this kind do not indeed frequent each other's company much, for in some cases they are not even pleasing to each other,

εἰσὶν ἡδεῖς· οὐδὲ δὴ¹ προσδέονται τῆς τοιαύτης
 ὁμιλίας, ἔαν μὴ ὠφέλιμοι ᾖσιν· ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον ³⁰
 γάρ εἰσιν ἡδεῖς· ἔφ' ὅσον ἐλπίδας ἔχουσιν ἀγαθοῦ.
 5 εἰς ταύτας δὲ καὶ τὴν ξενικὴν τιθέασιν. ἡ δὲ
 τῶν νέων φιλία δι' ἡδονὴν εἶναι δοκεῖ· κατὰ
 πάθος γὰρ οὗτοι ζῶσι, καὶ μάλιστα δικύκουσι
 τὸ ἡδὺ αὐτοῖς καὶ τὸ παρόν. τῆς ἡλικίας δὲ
 μεταπιπτούσης καὶ τὰ ἡδέα γίνεται ἕτερα· διὸ
 ταχέως γίνονται φίλοι καὶ παύονται· ἅμα γὰρ ³⁵
 τῷ ἡδεῖ ἡ φιλία μεταπίπτει, τῆς δὲ τοιαύτης ^{1156 b}
 ἡδονῆς ταχεῖα ἡ μεταβολή. καὶ ἔρωτικοί δ' οἱ
 νέοι· κατὰ πάθος γὰρ καὶ δι' ἡδονὴν τὸ πολὺν
 τῆς ἐρωτικῆς²· διόπερ φιλοῦσι <ταχέως>³ καὶ
 ταχέως⁴ παύονται, πολλάκις τῆς αὐτῆς ἡμέρας
 μεταπίπτοντες. συνημερεύειν δὲ καὶ συζῆν ⁵
 οὗτοι βούλονται· γίνεται γὰρ αὐτοῖς τὸ κατὰ
 φιλίαν οὕτως.
 6 Τελεία δ' ἐστὶν ἡ τῶν ἀγαθῶν φιλία καὶ κατ'
 ἀρετὴν ὁμοίων. οὗτοι γὰρ τὰγαθὰ ὁμοίως βού-
 λονται ἀλλήλοις, ἥ ἀγαθοί, ἀγαθοὶ δ' εἰσὶ καθ'
 αὐτούς· οἱ δὲ βουλόμενοι τὰγαθὰ τοῖς φίλοις ¹⁰
 ἐκείνων ἔνεκα μάλιστα φίλοι, δι' αὐτοὺς γὰρ οὕτως
 ἔχουσι καὶ οὐ κατὰ συμβεβηκός. διαμένει οὖν ἡ
 τούτων φιλία ἕως ἂν ἀγαθοὶ ᾖσιν, ἡ δ' ἀρετὴ
 μόνιμον. καὶ ἔστιν ἑκάτερος ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὸς καὶ
 τῷ φίλῳ· οἱ γὰρ ἀγαθοὶ καὶ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθοὶ καὶ

¹ δὴ om. K^b.² τοῖς ἐρωτικοῖς M^b.³ ed.⁴ τάχως καὶ ? Bywater.^a See § 1 above, and note.^b i.e., for some accidental, i.e. temporary or not essential, quality: cf. §§ 2, 3.

and therefore have no use for friendly intercourse unless they are mutually profitable; since their pleasure in each other goes no further than their expectations of advantage.

With these friendships are classed family ties of hospitality with foreigners.

- 5 With the young on the other hand the motive of friendship appears to be pleasure, since the young guide their lives by emotion, and for the most part pursue what is pleasant to themselves, and the object of the moment. And the things that please them change as their age alters; hence they both form friendships and drop them quickly, since their affections alter with what gives them pleasure, and the tastes of youth change quickly. Also the young are prone to fall in love, as love is chiefly guided by emotion, and grounded on pleasure; hence they form attachments quickly and give them up quickly, often changing before the day is out.

The young do desire to pass their time in their friend's company, for that is how they get the enjoyment of their friendship.

- 6 The perfect form of friendship is that between the good, and those who resemble each other in virtue. For these friends wish each alike the other's good in respect of their goodness,^a and they are good in themselves; but it is those who wish the good of their friends for their friends' sake who are friends in the fullest sense, since they love each other for themselves and not accidentally.^b Hence the friendship of these lasts as long as they continue to be good; and virtue is a permanent quality. And each is good relatively to his friend as well as absolutely, since the good are both good absolutely and profitable

Friendship of Virtue, the perfect kind.

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- ἀλλήλοις ὠφέλιμοι. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡδεῖς· καὶ γὰρ 15
 ἀπλῶς οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἡδεῖς καὶ ἀλλήλοις· ἐκάστω
 γὰρ καθ' ἡδονήν εἰσιν αἱ οἰκεῖαι πράξεις, καὶ αἱ
 τοιαῦται, τῶν ἀγαθῶν δὲ αἱ αὐταὶ ἢ ὅμοιαι.—
 7 ἡ τοιαύτη δὲ φιλία μόνιμος εὐλόγως ἐστίν·
 συνάπτει γὰρ ἐν αὐτῇ πάνθ' ὅσα τοῖς φίλοις δεῖ
 ὑπάρχειν. πᾶσα γὰρ φιλία δι' ἀγαθόν ἐστιν ἢ 20
 δι' ἡδονήν, ἢ ἀπλῶς ἢ τῷ φιλοῦντι, καὶ καθ'
 ὁμοιότητά τινα· ταύτη δὲ πάνθ' ὑπάρχει τὰ
 εἰρημένα καθ' αὐτούς, ταύτη γὰρ ὁμοιοί¹ καὶ τὰ
 λοιπά. τό τε ἀπλῶς ἀγαθόν καὶ ἡδὺ ἀπλῶς
 ἐστίν· μάλιστα δὲ ταῦτα φιλητά· καὶ τὸ φιλεῖν
 δῆ² καὶ ἡ φιλία ἐν τούτοις μάλιστα καὶ ἀρίστη.—
 8 σπανίας δ' εἰκὸς τὰς τοιαύτας εἶναι· ὀλίγοι γὰρ 25
 οἱ τοιοῦτοι. ἔτι δὲ προσδεῖται χρόνου καὶ συν-
 ηθείας· κατὰ τὴν παροιμίαν γὰρ οὐκ ἔστιν εἰδῆσαι
 ἀλλήλους πρὶν τοὺς λεγομένους ἄλλας συναναλῶσαι·
 οὐδ' ἀποδέξασθαι δὴ πρότερον οὐδ' εἶναι φίλους,
 πρὶν ἂν ἑκάτερος ἑκατέρῳ φανῇ φιλητὸς καὶ
 9 πιστευθῇ. οἱ δὲ ταχέως τὰ φιλικὰ πρὸς ἀλλήλους 30
 ποιοῦντες βούλονται μὲν φίλοι εἶναι, οὐκ εἰσὶ δέ,

¹ ὅμοια L^b.² δῆ Ramsauer: δέ.

^a There is some uncertainty here and elsewhere in these chapters whether 'similarity' refers to resemblance between the friends (as § 6, and cf. 1139 a 10, καθ' ὁμοιότητά τινα), or between the different forms of friendship (as καθ' ὁμοιότητα, 1157 a 32, 1158 b 6), friendships based on pleasure or profit being only so called 'by way of resemblance,' i.e. in an analogical and secondary sense. But the latter consideration seems irrelevant here, and is first developed in the next chapter (§§ 1, 4). It is true that whether similarity between the parties is an element in all friendship (although this is implied by the words 'alike in virtue' in § 6) is

to each other. And each is pleasant in both ways also, since good men are pleasant both absolutely and to each other; for everyone is pleased by his own actions, and therefore by actions that resemble his own, and the actions of all good men are
7 the same or similar. Such friendship is naturally permanent, since it combines in itself all the attributes that friends ought to possess. All affection is based on good or on pleasure, either absolute or relative to the person who feels it, and is prompted by similarity^a of some sort; but this friendship possesses all these attributes in the friends themselves, for they are alike, *et cetera*,^b in that way.^c Also the absolutely good is pleasant absolutely as well; but the absolutely good and pleasant are the chief objects of affection; therefore it is between good men that affection and friendship exist in their fullest and best form.

8 Such friendships are of course rare, because such men are few. Moreover they require time and intimacy: as the saying goes, you cannot get to know a man till you have consumed the proverbial amount of salt^d in his company; and so you cannot admit him to friendship or really be friends, before each has shown the other that he is worthy of friend-
9 ship and has won his confidence. People who enter into friendly relations quickly have the wish to be friends, but cannot really be friends without being

nowhere clearly decided, and it can hardly be predicated of some friendships considered below.

^b *i.e.*, absolutely and relatively good and pleasant: *cf.* c. iv. 1. ^c *i.e.*, in themselves, and not accidentally.

^d *Cf. Eudemian Ethics*, 1238 a 2, διὸ εἰς παροιμίαν ἐλήλυθεν ὁ μέδιμνος τῶν ἁλῶν, 'hence "the peck of salt" has passed into a proverb.'

εἰ μὴ καὶ φιλητοὶ καὶ τοῦτ' ἴσασιν· βούλησις μὲν γὰρ ταχεῖα φιλίας γίνεται, φιλία δ' οὐ.

- iv Αὕτη μὲν οὖν καὶ κατὰ τὸν χρόνον καὶ κατὰ τὰ λοιπὰ τελεία ἐστί, καὶ κατὰ πάντα ταῦτα γίνεται καὶ ὅμοια ἑκατέρῳ παρ' ἑκατέρου, ὅπερ ³⁵ δεῖ τοῖς φίλοις ὑπάρχειν. ἡ δὲ διὰ τὸ ἡδὺ ὁμοίωμα ¹¹⁵⁷ ταύτης ἔχει· καὶ γὰρ οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἡδεῖς ἀλλήλοις· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον· καὶ γὰρ τοιοῦτοι ἀλλήλοις οἱ ἀγαθοί. μάλιστα δὲ καὶ ἐν τούτοις αἱ φιλίαι διαμένουσιν ὅταν τὸ αὐτὸ γίγνηται παρ' ἀλλήλων, οἷον ἡδονή, καὶ μὴ μόνον οὕτως ἀλλὰ ⁵ καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ αὐτοῦ, οἷον τοῖς εὐτραπέλοις, καὶ μὴ ὥς ἐραστῇ καὶ ἐρωμένῳ. οὐ γὰρ ἐπὶ τοῖς αὐτοῖς ἡδονταὶ οὗτοι, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ὁρῶν ἐκείνον, ὁ δὲ θεραπευόμενος ὑπὸ τοῦ ἐραστοῦ· ληγουσῆς δὲ τῆς ὥρας ἐνίστε καὶ ἡ φιλία λήγει (τῷ μὲν γὰρ οὐκέτι¹ ἡδεῖα ἡ ὄψις, τῷ δ' οὐ γίνεται ἡ θεραπεία). ¹⁰ πολλοὶ δ' αὖ διαμένουσιν, ἐὰν ἐκ τῆς συνηθείας ² τὰ ἡθῆ στέρξωσιν, ὁμοῖοι ὄντες. οἱ δὲ μὴ τὸ ἡδὺ ἀντικαταλλαττόμενοι ἀλλὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ἐν τοῖς ἐρωτικοῖς καὶ εἰσὶν ἡττον φίλοι καὶ διαμένουσιν. οἱ δὲ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ὄντες φίλοι ἅμα τῷ συμφέροντι² διαλύονται· οὐ γὰρ ἀλλήλων ¹⁵ ἦσαν φίλοι ἀλλὰ τοῦ λυσιτελοῦς. δι' ἡδονὴν μὲν

¹ οὐκέτι Ramsauer: οὐκ ἔστιν.

² συμφέροντι <λήγοντι> vel <παυομένῳ> Richards.

worthy of friendship, and also knowing each other to be so ; the wish to be friends is a quick growth, but friendship is not.

- iv This form of friendship is perfect both in point of duration and of the other attributes ^a of friendship ; and in all respects either party receives from the other the same or similar benefits, as it is proper that friends should do.

The two lower kinds of Friendship less permanent ;

Friendship based on pleasure has a similarity to friendship based on virtue, for good men are pleasant to one another ; and the same is true of friendship based on utility, for good men are useful to each other. In these cases also the friendship is most lasting when each friend derives the same benefit, for instance pleasure, from the other, and not only so, but derives it from the same thing, as in a friendship between two witty people, and not as in one between a lover and his beloved. These do not find their pleasure in the same things : the lover's pleasure is in gazing at his beloved, the loved one's pleasure is in receiving the attentions of the lover ; and when the loved one's beauty fades, the friendship sometimes fades too, as the lover no longer finds pleasure in the sight of his beloved, and the loved one receives no attentions from the lover ; though on the other hand many do remain friends if as a result of their intimacy they have come to love each other's characters, both being alike in character. But when a pair of lovers exchange not pleasure for pleasure but pleasure for gain, the friendship is less intense and less lasting.

A friendship based on utility dissolves as soon as its profit ceases ; for the friends did not love each other, but what they got out of each other.

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οὖν καὶ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον καὶ φαύλους ἐνδέχεται φίλους εἶναι ἀλλήλοις, καὶ ἐπιεικεῖς φαύλοις καὶ μηδέτερον ὁποιοῦν, δι' αὐτοὺς δὲ δῆλον ὅτι μόνους τοὺς ἀγαθοὺς· οἱ γὰρ κακοὶ οὐ χαίρουσιν
 3 ἑαυτοῖς, εἰ μὴ τις ὠφέλεια γίγνοιτο. καὶ μόνῃ 20
 δὲ ἡ τῶν ἀγαθῶν φιλία ἀδιάβλητός ἐστιν· οὐ γὰρ ῥάδιον οὐδενὶ πιστεῦσαι περὶ τοῦ ἐν πολλῷ χρόνῳ ὑφ' αὐτοῦ δεδοκιμασμένου· καὶ τὸ πιστεύειν ἐν τούτοις, καὶ τὸ μηδέποτ' ἂν ἀδικῆσαι, καὶ ὅσα ἄλλα ἐν τῇ ὥς ἀληθῶς φιλία ἀξιούται. ἐν δὲ ταῖς ἑτέραις οὐδὲν κωλύει τὰ τοιαῦτα 25
 4 γίνεσθαι. ἐπεὶ δὲ¹ οἱ ἄνθρωποι λέγουσι φίλους καὶ τοὺς διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον, ὥσπερ αἱ πόλεις (δοκοῦσι γὰρ αἱ συμμαχίαι ταῖς πόλεσι γίνεσθαι ἔνεκα τοῦ συμφέροντος), καὶ τοὺς δι' ἡδονὴν ἀλλήλους στέργοντας, ὥσπερ οἱ παῖδες, ἴσως λέγειν μὲν δεῖ καὶ ἡμᾶς φίλους τοὺς τοιοῦτους, 30
 εἶδη δὲ τῆς φιλίας πλείω, καὶ πρῶτως μὲν καὶ κυρίως τὴν τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἢ ἀγαθοί, τὰς δὲ λοιπὰς καθ' ὁμοιότητα· ἡ γὰρ ἀγαθὸν τι καὶ² ὁμοίον τι,³ ταύτῃ φίλοι· καὶ γὰρ τὸ ἡδὺ ἀγαθὸν τοῖς
 5 φιληδέσιν. οὐ πάνυ δ' αὖται συνάπτουσιν, οὐδὲ γίνονται οἱ αὐτοὶ φίλοι διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον καὶ διὰ 35

¹ δὲ M^b: γὰρ.² ἀγαθῷ τινὶ [καὶ] Coraes.³ τι om. L^b: [καὶ ὁμοίον τι] ? ed.

^a Literally, 'by way of resemblance to true friendship': see c. iii. 7, note.

^b Perhaps the words 'and of likeness' are interpolated; the following clause explains 'goodness' only. That utility is 'a sort of goodness' is assumed.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VIII. iv. 2-5

Friendships therefore based on pleasure and on utility can exist between two bad men, between one bad man and one good, and between a man neither good nor bad and another either good, bad, or neither. But clearly only good men can be friends for what they are in themselves ; since bad men do not take pleasure in each other, save as they get some advantage from each other.

and not confined to good men (2nd Difficulty).

3 Also friendship between good men alone is proof against calumny ; for a man is slow to believe anybody's word about a friend whom he has himself tried and tested for many years, and with them there is the mutual confidence, the incapacity ever to do each other wrong, and all the other characteristics that are implied in true friendship. Whereas the other forms of friendship are liable to be dissolved by calumny and suspicion.

4 But since people do apply the term 'friends' to persons whose regard for each other is based on utility, just as states can be 'friends' (since expediency is generally recognized as the motive of international alliances), or on pleasure, as children make friends, perhaps we too must call such relationships friendships ; but then we must say that there are several sorts of friendship, that between good men, as good, being friendship in the primary and proper meaning of the term, while the other kinds are friendships in an analogical sense,^a since such friends are friends in virtue of a sort of goodness and of likeness^b in them : insomuch as pleasure is good

5 in the eyes of pleasure-lovers. But these two secondary forms of friendship are not very likely to coincide : men do not make friends with each other both for utility and for pleasure at the same time,

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τὸ ἡδύ· οὐ γὰρ πάνυ συνδυνάζεται τὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός.

6 Εἰς ταῦτα δὲ τὰ εἶδη τῆς φιλίας νενέμημένης 1157^b
οἱ μὲν φαῦλοι ἔσονται φίλοι δι' ἡδονὴν ἢ τὸ
χρήσιμον, ταύτῃ ὅμοιοι ὄντες, οἱ δ' ἀγαθοὶ δι'
αὐτοὺς φίλοι· ἢ γὰρ ἀγαθοί. οὗτοι μὲν οὖν
ἀπλῶς φίλοι, ἐκεῖνοι δὲ κατὰ συμβεβηκός καὶ 5
τῷ ὁμοιωσθαι τούτοις.

7 Ὡς περ δ' ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν οἱ μὲν καθ' ἕξιν οἱ
δὲ κατ' ἐνέργειαν ἀγαθοὶ λέγονται, οὕτω καὶ
ἐπὶ τῆς φιλίας· οἱ μὲν γὰρ συζῶντες χαίρουσιν
ἀλλήλοις καὶ πορίζουσι τὰγαθὰ, οἱ δὲ καθεύδοντες
ἢ κεχωρισμένοι τοῖς τόποις οὐκ ἐνεργοῦσι μὲν,
οὕτω δ' ἔχουσιν ὥστ' ἐνεργεῖν φιλικῶς· οἱ γὰρ 10
τόποι οὐ διαλύουσι τὴν φιλίαν ἀπλῶς, ἀλλὰ τὴν
ἐνέργειαν. ἐὰν δὲ χρόνιος ἡ ἀπουσία γίνηται,
καὶ τῆς φιλίας δοκεῖ λήθην ποιεῖν· ὅθεν εἴρηται

πολλὰς δὲ φιλίας ἀπροσηγορία διέλυσεν.

2 οὐ φαίνονται δ' οὔθ' οἱ πρεσβῦται οὔθ' οἱ στρυφνοὶ
φιλικοὶ εἶναι· βραχὺ γὰρ ἐν αὐτοῖς τὸ τῆς ἡδονῆς, 15
οὐδεὶς δὲ δύναται συνημερεύειν τῷ λυπηρῷ οὐδὲ
τῷ μὴ ἡδεῖ· μάλιστα γὰρ ἡ φύσις φαίνεται τὸ
μὲν λυπηρὸν φεύγειν, ἐφίεσθαι δὲ τοῦ ἡδέος.
3 οἱ δ' ἀποδεχόμενοι ἀλλήλους, μὴ συζῶντες δέ,
εὖνοις εἰκόασιν μᾶλλον ἢ φίλοις. οὐδὲν γὰρ οὕτως
ἐστὶ φίλων ὥς τὸ συζῆν· ὠφελείας μὲν γὰρ οἱ 20

^a i.e., in being pleasant and useful to each other; or possibly 'since they are alike in loving pleasure and profit.'

^b Or possibly 'since they like each other as being good.'

^c The source of this is unknown.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VIII. iv. 5—v. 3

since accidental qualities are rarely found in combination.

- 6 Friendship then being divided into these species, inferior people will make friends for pleasure or for use, if they are alike in that respect,^a while good men will be friends for each other's own sake, since they are alike in being good.^b The latter therefore are friends in an absolute sense, the former accidentally, and through their similarity to the latter.

- v It is with friendship as it is with the virtues ; men are called good in two senses, either as having a virtuous disposition or as manifesting virtue in action, and similarly friends when in each other's company derive pleasure from each other and render each other services, whereas friends who are asleep or parted are not actively friendly, yet have the disposition to be so. For separation does not destroy friendship absolutely, though it prevents its active exercise. If however the absence be prolonged, it seems to cause the friendly feeling itself to be forgotten : hence the saying^c

Full many a man finds friendship end
For lack of converse with his friend.

- 2 The old and the morose do not appear to be much given to friendship, for their capacity to please is small, and nobody can pass his days in the company of one who is distasteful to him, or not pleasing, since it seems to be one of the strongest instincts of nature to shun what is painful and seek what is pleasant. And when persons approve of each other without seeking such other's society, this is to be called goodwill rather than friendship. Nothing is more characteristic of friends than that they seek each other's society : poor men desire their friends'

The genus of Friendship it is a fixed Disposition, maintained by active exercise in intercourse.

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ἐνδεεῖς ὀρέγονται, συνημερεύειν δὲ καὶ οἱ μακάριοι (μονώταις γὰρ¹ εἶναι τούτοις ἥκιστα προσήκει). συνδιαγειν δὲ μετ' ἀλλήλων οὐκ ἔστι μὴ ἡδεῖς ὄντας, μηδὲ χαίροντας τοῖς αὐτοῖς· ὅπερ ἡ ἐταιρική δοκεῖ ἔχειν.

- 4 Μάλιστα μὲν οὖν ἐστὶ φιλία ἢ τῶν ἀγαθῶν,²⁵ καθάπερ πολλάκις εἴρηται· δοκεῖ γὰρ φιλητὸν μὲν καὶ αἵρετὸν² τὸ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὸν ἢ ἡδύ, ἐκάστω δὲ τὸ αὐτῷ τοιούτον· ὁ δ' ἀγαθὸς τῷ ἀγαθῷ δι'
5 ἄμφω ταῦτα. ἔοικε δ' ἡ μὲν φίλησις πάθει, ἡ δὲ φιλία ἔξει· ἡ γὰρ φίλησις οὐχ ἡττον πρὸς τὰ³⁰ ἄψυχά ἐστιν, ἀντιφιλοῦσι δὲ μετὰ προαιρέσεως, ἡ δὲ προαίρεσις ἀφ' ἑξέως. καὶ τὰγαθὰ βούλονται τοῖς φιλουμένοις ἐκείνων ἔνεκα οὐ κατὰ πάθος ἀλλὰ καθ' ἑξίν. καὶ φιλοῦντες τὸν φίλον τὸ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθὸν φιλοῦσιν· ὁ γὰρ ἀγαθὸς φίλος γινόμενος ἀγαθὸν γίνεται ὥς φίλος. ἐκάτερος οὖν φιλεῖ τε³⁵ τὸ αὐτῷ ἀγαθὸν καὶ τὸ ἴσον ἀνταποδίδωσι τῇ βουλήσει καὶ τῷ ἡδεῖ³. λέγεται γὰρ φιλότης [ἡ]⁴ ἰσότης, μάλιστα δὲ⁵ τῇ τῶν ἀγαθῶν ταύτῃ ὑπ- 1158 a
ἀρχει.

¹ γὰρ K^b: μὲν γὰρ. ² αἵρετὸν <ἀπλῶς> Asp. (Richards).

³ ἡδεῖ: εἶδει Γ, pr. L^b, ἥθει Zeller.

⁴ [ἡ] om. K^b.

⁵ δὲ Asp.: δῆ.

^a The ἐταιρείαι, or Comradeships, at Athens were associations of men of the same age and social standing. In the fifth century they had a political character, and were oligarchical in tendency, but in Aristotle's day they seem to have been no more than social clubs, whose members were united by warm personal feeling, and were felt to have claims on each other's resources. See cc. ix. 2, xi. 5, xii. 4, 6, ix. ii. 1, 3, 9, x. 6.

assistance, and even the most prosperous wish for their companionship (indeed they are the last people to adopt the life of a recluse); but it is impossible for men to spend their time together unless they give each other pleasure, or have common tastes. The latter seems to be the bond between the members of a comradeship.^a

- 4 Friendship between good men then is the truest friendship, as has been said several times before. For it is agreed that what is good and pleasant absolutely is lovable and desirable strictly, while what is good and pleasant relatively to a particular person is lovable and desirable for that person; but the friendship of good men rests on both these grounds.^b

- 5 Liking^c seems to be an emotion, friendship a fixed disposition, for liking can be felt even for inanimate things, but reciprocal liking^d involves deliberate choice, and this springs from a fixed disposition. Also, when men wish the good of those they love for their own sakes, their goodwill does not depend on emotion but on a fixed disposition. And in loving their friend they love their own good, for the good man in becoming dear to another becomes that other's good. Each party therefore both loves his own good and also makes an equivalent return by wishing the other's good, and by affording him pleasure; for there is a saying, 'Friendship is equality,' and this is most fully realized in the friendships of the good.

^b *i.e.*, good men love each other because they are both good and pleasant absolutely and good and pleasant for each other.

^c This sentence would come better after the following one.

^d *Cf.* c. ii. 3.

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vi Ἐν δὲ τοῖς στρυφνοῖς καὶ πρεσβυτικοῖς ἦττον
 γίνεται ἢ φιλία, ὅσῳ δυσκολώτεροί ἐῖσι καὶ
 ἦττον ταῖς ὁμιλίαις χαίρουσιν· ταῦτα γὰρ δοκεῖ
 μάλιστ' εἶναι φιλικὰ καὶ ποιητικὰ φιλίας. διὸ
 νέοι μὲν γίνονται φίλοι ταχύ, πρεσβῦται δ' οὐ·
 οὐ γὰρ γίνονται φίλοι οἷς ἂν μὴ χαίρωσιν·
 ὁμοίως δ' οὐδ' οἱ στρυφνοί. ἀλλ' οἱ τοιοῦτοι
 εἶναι μὲν εἰσιν ἀλλήλοις· βούλονται γὰρ τὰγαθὰ
 καὶ ἀπαντῶσιν εἰς τὰς χρείας· φίλοι δ' οὐ πάνυ
 εἰσὶ διὰ τὸ μὴ συνημερεύειν μηδὲ χαίρειν ἀλλήλοις,
 2 ἃ δὴ μάλιστ' εἶναι δοκεῖ φιλικά. πολλοῖς δ' 10
 εἶναι φίλον κατὰ τὴν τελείαν φιλίαν οὐκ ἐνδέχεται,
 ὥσπερ οὐδ' ἐρᾶν πολλῶν ἅμα (ἔοικε γὰρ ὑπερβολῇ,
 τὸ τοιοῦτο δὲ πρὸς ἓνα πέφυκε γίνεσθαι)· πολλοὺς
 δ' ἅμα τῷ αὐτῷ ἀρέσκειν σφόδρα οὐ ῥάδιον,
 3 ἴσως δ' οὐδ' ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι. δεῖ δὲ καὶ ἐμπειρίαν 15
 λαβεῖν καὶ ἐν συνηθείᾳ γενέσθαι, ὃ παγχάλεπον.
 διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον δὲ καὶ τὸ ἡδὺ πολλοὺς¹ ἀρέσκειν
 ἐνδέχεται· πολλοὶ γὰρ οἱ τοιοῦτοι, καὶ ἐν ὀλίγῳ
 4 χρόνῳ αἱ ὑπηρεσίαι. τούτων δὲ μᾶλλον ἔοικε
 φιλία² ἢ διὰ τὸ ἡδύ, ὅταν ταῦτα ἀπ' ἀμφοῖν
 γίγνηται καὶ χαίρωσιν ἀλλήλοις ἢ τοῖς αὐτοῖς, 20
 οἷαι τῶν νέων εἰσὶν αἱ φιλίαι· μᾶλλον γὰρ ἐν

¹ πολλοὺς Ramsauer : πολλοῖς.

² φιλία Asp. : φιλία.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VIII. vi. 1-4

vi Morose and elderly people rarely make friends, as they are inclined to be surly, and do not take much pleasure in society ; good temper and sociability appear to be the chief constituents or causes of friendship. Hence the young make friends quickly, but the old do not, since you do not make friends with people if you do not enjoy their company ; and the same applies to persons of a morose temper. It is true that the old or morose may feel goodwill for each other, since they may wish each other well and help each other in case of need ; but they cannot properly be called friends, as they do not seek each other's society nor enjoy it, and these are thought to be the chief marks of friendship.

Friendship
and inter-
course.

2 It is not possible to have many friends in the full meaning of the word friendship, any more than it is to be in love with many people at once (love indeed seems to be an excessive state of emotion, such as is naturally felt towards one person only) ; and it is not easy for the same person to like a number of people at once, nor indeed perhaps can

3 good men be found in large numbers. Also for perfect friendship you must get to know a man thoroughly, and become intimate with him, which is a very difficult thing to do. But it is possible to like a number of persons for their utility and pleasantness, for useful and pleasant people are plentiful, and the benefits they confer can be enjoyed at once.

The perfect
kind of
Friendship
rare.



4 Of these two inferior kinds of friendship, the one that more closely resembles true friendship is that based on pleasure, in which the same benefit is conferred by both parties, and they enjoy each other's company, or have common tastes ; as is the case with the friendships of young people. For

Friendships
of Pleasure
nearer per-
fect friend-
ship than
Friendships
of Utility

ταύταις τὸ ἐλευθέριον, ἡ δὲ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον
 ἀγοραίων. καὶ οἱ μακάριοι δὲ χρησίμων μὲν
 οὐδὲν δέονται, ἥδέων δέ· συζῆν μὲν γὰρ βούλονται
 τισι, τὸ δὲ λυπηρὸν ὀλίγον μὲν χρόνον φέρουσιν,
 συνεχῶς δ' οὐθεὶς ἂν ὑπομεῖναι, οὐδ' αὐτὸ τὸ ²⁵
 ἀγαθόν, εἰ λυπηρὸν αὐτῷ εἴη· διὸ τοὺς^a φίλους
 ἡδεῖς ζητοῦσιν. δεῖ δ' ἴσως καὶ ἀγαθοὺς τοιού-
 τους ὄντας, καὶ ἔτι αὐτοῖς· οὕτω γὰρ ὑπάρξει
 5 αὐτοῖς ὅσα δεῖ τοῖς φίλοις. οἱ δ' ἐν ταῖς ἐξουσίαις
 διηρημένοι φαίνονται χρῆσθαι τοῖς φίλοις· ἄλλοι
 γὰρ αὐτοῖς εἰσὶ χρήσιμοι καὶ ἕτεροι ἡδεῖς, ἅμφω
 δ' οἱ αὐτοὶ οὐ πάνν· οὔτε γὰρ ἡδεῖς μετ' ἀρετῆς ³⁰
 ζητοῦσιν οὔτε χρησίμους εἰς τὰ καλὰ, ἀλλὰ τοὺς
 μὲν εὐτραπέλους τοῦ ἡδέος ἐφιέμενοι, τοὺς δὲ
 δεινούς πρᾶξαι τὸ ἐπιταχθέν· ταῦτα δ' οὐ πάνν
 6 γίνεται ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ. ἡδὺς δὲ καὶ χρήσιμος ἅμα
 εἴρηται ὅτι ὁ σπουδαῖος· ἀλλ' ὑπερέχοντι οὐ
 γίνεται ὁ τοιοῦτος φίλος, ἂν μὴ καὶ τῇ ἀρετῇ ³⁵
 ὑπερέχεται· εἰ δὲ μὴ, οὐκ ἰσάζει ἀνάλογον ὑπερ-
 εχόμενος. οὐ πάνν δ' εἰώθασι τοιοῦτοι γίνεσθαι.
 7 Εἰσὶ δ' οὖν αἱ εἰρημέναι φιλῖαι ἐν ἰσότητι· τὰ ¹¹⁵⁸
 γὰρ αὐτὰ γίνεται ἅπ' ἀμφοῖν καὶ βούλονται
 ἀλλήλοις, ἢ ἕτερον ἀνθ' ἑτέρου ἀντικαταλλάτ-

^a For this 'proportional equalization' of the parties to an unequal friendship see c. vii. 2, c. xiii. 1. It would appear that the meaning here is, that unless the great man is also better than the good man, the good man cannot love or respect the great man more than the great man loves him, which is the only way in which the good man can compensate for getting more benefits than he gives, and so be put on an equality; see further on ix. i. 1.

in these there is more generosity of feeling, whereas the friendship of utility is a thing for sordid souls. Also those blessed with great prosperity have no need of useful friends, but do need pleasant ones, since they desire some society; and though they may put up with what is unpleasant for a short time, no one would stand it continually: you could not endure even the Absolute Good itself for ever, if it bored you; and therefore the rich seek for friends who will be pleasant. No doubt they ought to require them to be good as well as pleasant, and also good for them, since then they would possess all the
 5 proper qualifications for friendship. But princes and rulers appear to keep their friends in separate compartments: they have some that are useful, and some that are pleasant, but rarely any that are both at once. For they do not seek for friends who are pleasant because they are good, or useful for noble purposes, but look for witty people when they desire pleasure, and for the other sort seek men who are clever at executing their commissions; and these two qualities are rarely found in the same
 6 person. The good man, as we have said, is both useful and pleasant, but the good man does not become the friend of a superior, unless his superior in rank be also his superior in virtue; otherwise the good man as the inferior party cannot make matters proportionally equal.^a But potentates of such superior excellence are scarcely common.

7 But to resume: the forms of friendship of which we have spoken are friendships of equality, for both parties render the same benefit and wish the same good to each other, or else exchange ^b two different

^b *i.e.*, equivalent amounts of two different things.

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τονται, οἷον ἡδονὴν ἀντ' ὠφελείας. (ὅτι δ' ἦττον¹
εἰσὶν αὗται φιλίαι καὶ μένουσιν, εἴρηται? δοκοῦσι 5
δὲ δι' ὁμοιότητα καὶ ἀνομοιότητα ταύτου εἶναι
τε καὶ οὐκ εἶναι φιλίαι· καθ' ὁμοιότητα γὰρ
τῆς κατ' ἀρετὴν φαίνονται φιλίαι· ἡ μὲν γὰρ τὸ
ἡδὺ ἔχει ἡ δὲ τὸ χρήσιμον, ταῦτα δ' ὑπάρχει
κακείνη· τῷ δὲ τὴν μὲν ἀδιάβλητον καὶ μόνιμον
εἶναι, ταύτας δὲ ταχέως μεταπίπτειν, ἄλλοις τε 10
διαφέρειν πολλοῖς, οὐ φαίνονται φιλίαι δι' ἀν-
ομοιότητα ἐκείνης.)

- vii Ἐτερον δ' ἐστὶ φιλίας εἶδος τὸ καθ' ὑπεροχὴν,
οἷον πατρὶ πρὸς υἱὸν καὶ ὅλως πρεσβυτέρῳ πρὸς
νεώτερον, ἀνδρὶ τε πρὸς γυναῖκα καὶ παντὶ ἄρ-
χοντι πρὸς ἀρχόμενον. διαφέρουσι δ' αὗται καὶ
ἀλλήλων· οὐ γὰρ ἡ αὐτὴ γονεῦσι πρὸς τέκνα 15
καὶ ἄρχουσι πρὸς ἀρχομένους, ἀλλ' οὐδὲ πατρὶ
πρὸς υἱὸν καὶ υἱῷ πρὸς πατέρα, οὐδ' ἀνδρὶ πρὸς
γυναῖκα καὶ γυναικὶ πρὸς ἄνδρα. ἑτέρα γὰρ
ἐκάστου τούτων <ἡ>² ἀρετὴ καὶ τὸ ἔργον, ἕτερα
δὲ καὶ δι' αὐτὰ φιλοῦσιν· ἕτεραι οὖν καὶ αἱ φιλήσεις
2 καὶ αἱ φιλίαι. ταῦτα μὲν δὴ οὔτε γίνεταί 20
ἐκατέρῳ παρὰ θατέρου οὔτε δεῖ ζητεῖν· ὅταν
δὲ γονεῦσι μὲν τέκνα ἀπονέμῃ αὐτὰ δεῖ τοῖς γεννή-
σασιν, γονεῖς δὲ υἱέσιν³ αὐτὰ δεῖ τοῖς τέκνοις, μόνιμος

¹ δὲ καὶ ἦττον L^b: δ' ἦττον καὶ? ed.

² Richards.

³ υἱέσιν om. K^b.

^a i.e., friendships based on pleasure or utility or both, in contrast to those based on virtue; although the latter also are, of course, 'friendships of equality.' The parenthesis breaks the flow of the argument.

^b They are not only different in kind but unequal in value.

benefits, for instance pleasure and profit. (These ^a are less truly friendships, and less permanent, as we have said ; and opinions differ as to whether they are really friendships at all, owing to their being both like and unlike the same thing. In view of their likeness to friendship based on virtue they do appear to be friendships, for the one contains pleasure and the other utility, and these are attributes of that form of friendship too ; but in that friendship based on virtue is proof against calumny, and permanent, while the others quickly change, besides differing in many other respects, they appear not to be real friendships, owing to their unlikeness to it.)

- vii But there is a different kind of friendship, which Friendships
of Unequals. involves superiority of one party over the other, for example, the friendship between father and son, and generally between an older person and a younger, and that between husband and wife, and between any ruler and the persons ruled. These friendships also vary among themselves. The friendship between parents and children is not the same as that between ruler and ruled, nor indeed is the friendship of father for son the same as that of son for father, nor that of husband for wife as that of wife for husband ; for each of these persons has a different excellence and function, and also different motives for their regard, and so the affection and friendship ² they feel are different. Now in these unequal friendships the benefits that one party receives and is entitled to claim from the other are not the same ^b on either side ; but the friendship between parents and children will be enduring and equitable, when the children render to the parents the services due to the authors of one's being, and the parents to the

ἡ τῶν τοιούτων καὶ ἐπιεικὴς ἔσται φιλία. ἀνάλογον δ' ἐν πάσαις ταῖς καθ' ὑπεροχὴν οὖσαι φιλίαις καὶ τὴν φιλίῃσιν δεῖ γίνεσθαι, οἷον τὸν 25 ἀμείνω μᾶλλον φιλεῖσθαι ἢ φιλεῖν, καὶ τὸν ὠφελιμώτερον, καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἕκαστον ὁμοίως· ὅταν γὰρ κατ' ἀξίαν ἡ φιλίῃσις γίγνηται, τότε γίγνεται πῶς ἰσότης, ὃ δὴ τῆς φιλίας εἶναι δοκεῖ.

- 3 Οὐχ ὁμοίως δὲ τὸ ἴσον ἔν τε τοῖς δικαίοις καὶ ἐν τῇ φιλίᾳ φαίνεται ἔχειν· ἔστι γὰρ ἐν μὲν τοῖς 30 δικαίοις ἴσον πρῶτως τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν, τὸ δὲ κατὰ ποσὸν δευτέρως, ἐν δὲ τῇ φιλίᾳ τὸ μὲν κατὰ ποσὸν 4 πρῶτως, τὸ δὲ κατ' ἀξίαν δευτέρως. δῆλον δ', εἰς πολὺ διάστημα γίγνηται ἀρετῆς ἢ κακίας ἢ εὐπορίας ἢ τινος ἄλλου· οὐ γὰρ ἔτι φίλοι εἰσὶν, ἀλλ' οὐδ' ἀξιοῦσιν. ἐμφανέστατον δὲ τοῦτ' ἐπὶ 35 τῶν θεῶν, πλείστον γὰρ οὗτοι πᾶσι τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς ὑπερέχουσιν· δῆλον δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν βασιλέων· 1159 οὐδὲ γὰρ τούτοις ἀξιοῦσιν εἶναι φίλοι οἱ πολὺ καταδεέστεροι, οὐδὲ τοῖς ἀρίστοις ἢ σοφωτάτοις 5 οἱ μηδενὸς ἄξιοι. ἀκριβὴς μὲν οὖν ἐν τοῖς τοιούτοις οὐκ ἔστιν ὀρισμός, ἕως τίνος [οἱ] φίλοι¹. πολλῶν γὰρ ἀφαιρουμένων ἔτι μένει, πολὺ δὲ 6 χωρισθέντος, οἷον τοῦ θεοῦ, οὐκέτι. ὅθεν καὶ ἀπορεῖται, μή ποτ' οὐ βούλονται οἱ φίλοι τοῖς φίλοις τὰ μέγιστα τῶν ἀγαθῶν, οἷον θεοὺς εἶναι.

¹ [οἱ] φίλοι Ramsauer: ἡ φιλία ? Bywater.

^a i.e., unequal, and proportionate to the benefits received.

^b Lit. 'though many things are taken away, (friendship) still remains'; apparently an allusion to the Sorites fallacy (*ratio ruentis acervi*, Hor. *Exp.* II. i. 47), How many grains can be taken from a heap of corn for it still to be a heap?

children those due to one's offspring. The affection rendered in these various unequal friendships should also be proportionate ^a: the better of the two parties, for instance, or the more useful or otherwise superior as the case may be, should receive more affection than he bestows; since when the affection rendered is proportionate to desert, this produces equality in a sense between the parties, and equality is felt to be an essential element of friendship.

- 3 Equality in friendship, however, does not seem to be like equality in matters of justice. In the sphere of justice, 'equal' (fair) means primarily proportionate to desert, and 'equal in quantity' is only a secondary sense; whereas in friendship 'equal in quantity' is the primary meaning, and
- 4 'proportionate to desert' only secondary. This is clearly seen when a wide disparity arises between two friends in point of virtue or vice, or of wealth, or anything else; they no longer remain nor indeed expect to remain friends. This is most manifest in the case of the gods, whose superiority in every good attribute is pre-eminent; but it is also seen with princes: in their case also men much below them in station do not expect to be their friends, nor do persons of no particular merit expect to be the friends of men of distinguished excellence or
- 5 wisdom. It is true that we cannot fix a precise limit in such cases, up to which two men can still be friends; the gap may go on widening and the friendship still remain ^b; but when one becomes very remote from the other, as God is remote from man,
- 6 it can continue no longer. This gives rise to the question, is it not after all untrue that we wish our friends the greatest of goods? for instance, can we

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οὐδὲ γὰρ ἔτι φίλοι ἔσονται αὐτοῖς, οὐδὲ δὴ ἀγαθά· οἱ γὰρ φίλοι ἀγαθά. εἰ δὴ καλῶς εἴρηται ὅτι ὁ φίλος τῷ φίλῳ βούλεται τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἕνεκα, 10 μένειν ἂν δέοι οἷός ποτ' ἔστιν ἐκείνος· ἀνθρώπῳ δὴ¹ ὄντι βουλήσεται τὰ μέγιστα ἀγαθά. ἴσως δ' οὐ πάντα· αὐτῷ γὰρ μάλισθ' ἕκαστος βούλεται τὰγαθά.

- viii Οἱ πολλοὶ δὲ δοκοῦσι διὰ φιλοτιμίαν βούλεσθαι φιλεῖσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ φιλεῖν. διὸ φιλοκόλακες οἱ πολλοί· ὑπερεχόμενος γὰρ φίλος ὁ κόλαξ, ἢ προσ- 15 ποιεῖται τοιοῦτος <εἶναι>,² καὶ μᾶλλον φιλεῖν ἢ φιλεῖσθαι· τὸ δὲ φιλεῖσθαι ἐγγὺς εἶναι δοκεῖ 2 τοῦ τιμᾶσθαι, οὗ δὴ οἱ πολλοὶ ἐφίενται. οὐ δι' αὐτὸ δ' εἰκόασιν αἰρεῖσθαι τὴν τιμὴν, ἀλλὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός· χαίρουσι γὰρ οἱ μὲν πολλοὶ ὑπὸ τῶν ἐν ταῖς ἐξουσίαις τιμώμενοι διὰ τὴν ἐλπίδα· 20 οἷονται γὰρ τεύξεσθαι παρ' αὐτῶν, ἂν του δέωνται· ὥς δὴ σημείῳ τῆς εὐπαθείας χαίρουσι τῇ τιμῇ. οἱ δ' ὑπὸ τῶν ἐπικεικῶν καὶ εἰδότην ὀρεγόμενοι τιμῆς βεβαιῶσαι τὴν οἰκείαν δόξαν ἐφίενται περὶ αὐτῶν· χαίρουσι δὴ ὅτι εἰσὶν ἀγαθοί, πιστεύοντες τῇ τῶν λεγόντων κρίσει. τῷ φιλεῖσθαι δὲ καθ' 25 αὐτὸ χαίρουσιν· διὸ δόξειεν ἂν κρεῖττον εἶναι τοῦ τιμᾶσθαι, καὶ ἡ φιλία καθ' αὐτὴν αἰρετὴ εἶναι.

¹ δὴ Zwinger: δέ.

² Sylburg.

^a It is a contradiction in terms to wish a friend a good that involves a loss of good.

^b i.e., the party to the friendship who gets more than he gives, and redresses the balance by repaying more affection or esteem than he receives.

^c Or possibly 'so what they really enjoy is being assured,' etc.

wish them to become gods? for then they will lose us as friends, and therefore lose certain goods, for friends are goods.^a If then it was rightly said above that a true friend wishes his friend's good for that friend's own sake, the friend would have to remain himself, whatever that may be; so that he will really wish him only the greatest goods compatible with his remaining a human being. And perhaps not all of these, for everybody wishes good things for himself most of all.

- viii Most men however, because they love honour, seem to be more desirous of receiving than of bestowing affection. Hence most men like flattery, for a flatterer is a friend who is your inferior,^b or pretends to be so, and to love you more than you love him; but to be loved is felt to be nearly the same as to be honoured, which most people covet. They do not however appear to value honour for its own sake, but for something incidental to it. Most people like receiving honour from men of high station, because they hope for something from them: they think that if they want something, the great man will be able to give it them; so they enjoy being honoured by him as a token of benefits to come. Those on the other hand who covet being honoured by good men, and by persons who know them, do so from a desire to confirm their own opinion of themselves; so^c these like honour because they are assured of their worth by their confidence in the judgement of those who assert it. Affection on the other hand men like for its own sake; from which we infer that it is more valuable than honour, and that friendship is desirable in itself.

Inequality
redressed by
Affection.

ARISTOTLE

- 3 δοκεῖ δ' ἐν τῷ φιλεῖν μᾶλλον ἢ ἐν τῷ φιλεῖσθαι εἶναι. σημείον δ' αἱ μητέρες τῷ φιλεῖν χαίρουσαι· ἔναι γὰρ <ἐκ>διδόασι¹ τὰ ἑαυτῶν τρέφεσθαι, καὶ φιλοῦσι μὲν εἰδυῖαι, ἀντιφιλεῖσθαι δ' οὐ ζητοῦσιν, 30 ἐὰν ἀμφοτέρω μὴ ἐνδέχεται, ἀλλ' ἱκανὸν αὐταῖς ἔοικεν εἶναι, ἐὰν ὁρώσιν εὖ πράττοντας, καὶ αὐταὶ φιλοῦσιν αὐτούς, καὶ ἐκεῖνοι μὴδὲν ὦν
- 4 μητρὶ προσήκει ἀπονέμωσι διὰ τὴν ἄγνοιαν. μᾶλλον δὲ τῆς φιλίας οὔσης ἐν τῷ φιλεῖν, καὶ τῶν φιλοφίλων ἐπαινουμένων, φίλων ἀρετῇ τὸ 35 φιλεῖν ἔοικεν· ὥστ' ἐν οἷς τοῦτο γίνεται κατ' ἀξίαν, οὗτοι μόνιμοι φίλοι καὶ ἡ τούτων φιλία. 1159 b
- 5 οὕτω δ' ἂν καὶ οἱ ἄνισοι μάλιστα εἴεν φίλοι· ἰσάζονται γὰρ ἄν. ἡ δ' ἰσότης καὶ ὁμοιότης φιλότης, καὶ μάλιστα μὲν ἡ τῶν κατ' ἀρετὴν ὁμοιότης· μόνιμοι γὰρ ὄντες καθ' αὐτοὺς καὶ πρὸς ἀλλήλους μένουσι, καὶ οὔτε δέονται φαύλων 5 οὔθ' ὑπηρετοῦσι τοιαῦτα, ἀλλ' ὥς εἰπεῖν καὶ διακωλύουσι· τῶν ἀγαθῶν γὰρ μήτ' αὐτοὺς ἀμαρτάνειν μήτε τοῖς φίλοις ἐπιτρέπειν. οἱ δὲ μοχθηροὶ τὸ μὲν βέβαιον οὐκ ἔχουσιν· οὐδὲ γὰρ αὐτοῖς διαμένουσιν ὅμοιοι ὄντες· ἐπ' ὀλίγον δὲ χρόνον γίνονται φίλοι, χαίροντες τῇ ἀλλήλων 10
- 6 μοχθηρίᾳ. οἱ χρήσιμοι δὲ καὶ ἡδεῖς ἐπὶ πλεῖον διαμένουσιν· ἕως γὰρ ἂν πορίζωσιν ἡδονὰς ἢ ὠφελείας ἀλλήλοις. ἐξ ἐναντίων δὲ μάλιστα μὲν δοκεῖ ἡ διὰ τὸ χρησίμον γίνεσθαι φιλία, οἷον

¹ <ἐκ>διδόασι (vel <ἀλλαις> διδόασι Asp., Par.) Richards.

- 3 But in its essence friendship seems to consist more in giving than in receiving affection: witness the pleasure that mothers take in loving their children. Some mothers put their infants out to nurse, and though knowing and loving them, do not ask to be loved by them in return, if it be impossible to have this as well, but are content if they see them prospering; they retain their own love for them even though the children, not knowing them, cannot render them
- 4 any part of what is due to a mother. As then friendship consists more especially in bestowing affection, and as we praise men for loving their friends, affection seems to be the mark of a good friend. Hence it is friends that love each other as each deserves who continue friends and whose friendship is lasting.

- 5 Also it is by rendering affection in proportion to desert that friends who are not equals may approach most nearly to true friendship, since this will make them equal. Lovability consists in equality and similarity, especially the similarity of those who are alike in virtue; for being true to themselves, these also remain true to one another, and neither request nor render services that are morally degrading. Indeed they may be said actually to restrain each other from evil: since good men neither err themselves nor permit their friends to err. Bad men on the other hand have no constancy in friendship, for they do not even remain true to their own characters; but they can be friends for a short time, while they
- 6 take pleasure in each other's wickedness. The friendships of useful and pleasant people last longer, in fact as long as they give each other pleasure or benefit. It is friendship based on utility that seems most frequently to spring from opposites, for

Likeness
basis of t
Friendshi
(1st Diffi-
culty of c
1 6).

- πένης πλουσίῳ, ἀμαθὴς εἰδότι· οὐ γὰρ τυγχάνει
 τις ἐνδεὴς ὢν, τούτου ἐφίεμενος ἀντιδωρεῖται ¹⁵
 ἄλλο. ἐνταῦθα δ' ἂν τις ἔλκοι καὶ ἐραστήν καὶ
 ἐρώμενον, καὶ καλὸν καὶ αἰσχρόν. διὸ φαίνονται
 καὶ οἱ ἐρασταὶ γελοῖοι ἐνίοτε, ἀξιοῦντες φιλεῖσθαι
 ὡς φιλοῦσιν· ὁμοίως δὴ¹ φιλητοὺς ὄντας ἴσως
 ἀξιοτέον, μηδὲν δὲ τοιοῦτον ἔχοντας γελοῖον.
 7 ἴσως δὲ οὐδ' ἐφίεται τὸ ἐναντίον τοῦ ἐναντίου ²⁰
 καθ' αὐτό, ἀλλὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός, ἡ δ' ὄρεξις
 τοῦ μέσου ἐστίν (τοῦτο γὰρ ἀγαθόν), οἷον τῷ
 ξηρῷ οὐχ ὑγρῷ γενέσθαι ἀλλ' ἐπὶ τὸ μέσον ἔλθειν,
 καὶ τῷ θερμῷ καὶ τοῖς ἄλλοις ὁμοίως. ταῦτα
 μὲν οὖν ἀφείσθω· καὶ γὰρ ἐστὶν ἄλλοτριώτερα.
 ix Ἔοικε δέ, καθάπερ ἐν ἀρχῇ εἴρηται, περὶ ταῦτα ²⁵
 καὶ ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς εἶναι ἢ τε φιλία καὶ τὸ δίκαιον.
 ἐν ἀπάσῃ γὰρ κοινωνίᾳ δοκεῖ τι δίκαιον εἶναι,
 καὶ φιλία δέ· προσαγορεύουσι γοῦν ὡς φίλους
 τοὺς σύμπλους καὶ τοὺς συστρατιώτας, ὁμοίως
 δὲ καὶ τοὺς ἐν ταῖς ἄλλαις κοινωνίαις. καθ'
 ὅσον δὲ κοινωνοῦσιν, ἐπὶ τοσοῦτόν ἐστι φιλία· ³⁰
 καὶ γὰρ τὸ δίκαιον. καὶ ἡ παροιμία “ κοινὰ τὰ
 2 φίλων,” ὀρθῶς· ἐν κοινωνίᾳ γὰρ ἡ φιλία. ἐστι
 δ' ἀδελφοῖς μὲν καὶ ἐταίροις πάντα κοινά, τοῖς

¹ δη: δὲ I^O^b, γὰρ Hel. Ar.

^a c. i. 4.

instance a friendship between a poor man and a rich one, or between an ignorant man and a learned ; for a person desiring something which he happens to lack will give something else in return for it. One may bring under this class the friendship between a lover and the object of his affections, or between a plain person and a handsome one. This is why lovers sometimes appear ridiculous when they claim that their love should be equally reciprocated ; no doubt if they are equally lovable this is a reasonable demand, but it is ridiculous if they have nothing attractive about them.

- 7 But perhaps there is no real attraction between opposites as such, but only accidentally, and what they actually desire is the mean between them (since this is the Good) ; the dry for instance striving not to become wet, but to reach an intermediate state, and so with the hot, and everything else. Let us however dismiss this question, as being indeed somewhat foreign to our subject.

- ix The objects and the personal relationships with which friendship is concerned appear, as was said at the outset,^a to be the same as those which are the sphere of justice. For in every community we find mutual rights of some sort, and also friendly feeling : one notes that shipmates and fellow-soldiers speak of each other as ' my friend,' and so in fact do the partners in any joint undertaking. But their friendship is limited to the extent of their association in their common business, for so also are their mutual rights as associates. Again, the proverb says ' Friends' goods are common property,' and this is correct, since community is the essence of friend-
ship. Brothers have all things in common, and

The attraction of opposites accidental.

II. The social aspect of Friendship : its connexion with Justice, VIII. ix-c, ix. Friendship accompanying all social relations.

ARISTOTLE

δ' ἄλλοις ἀφωρισμένα, καὶ τοῖς μὲν πλείω τοῖς
 δ' ἐλάττω· καὶ γὰρ τῶν φιλιῶν αἱ μὲν μᾶλλον ³⁵
 αἱ δ' ἥττον. διαφέρει δὲ καὶ τὰ δίκαια· οὐ γὰρ
 ταῦτά γονεῦσι πρὸς τέκνα καὶ ἀδελφοῖς πρὸς ^{1160 a}
 ἀλλήλους, οὐδ' ἑταίροις καὶ πολίταις, ὁμοίως
 3 δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων φιλιῶν. ἕτερα δὴ καὶ τὰ
 ἄδικα πρὸς ἐκάστους τούτων, καὶ αὖξῃσιν λαμ-
 βάνει τῷ μᾶλλον πρὸς φίλους εἶναι, οἷον χρήματα ⁵
 ἀποστερηῆσαι ἑταῖρον δεινότερον ἢ πολίτην, καὶ
 μὴ βοηθῆσαι ἀδελφῷ ἢ ὀθνείῳ, καὶ πατάξαι
 πατέρα ἢ ὄντιν οὖν ἄλλον. αὖξεσθαι δὲ πέφυκεν
 ἅμα τῇ φιλίᾳ καὶ τὸ δίκαιον, ὥς ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς
 4 ὄντα καὶ ἐπ' ἴσον διήκοντα. αἱ δὲ κοινωναίαι
 πᾶσαι μορίοις ἐοίκασι τῆς πολιτικῆς· συμπο-
 ρεύονται γὰρ ἐπὶ τινι συμφέροντι, καὶ ποριζό- ¹⁰
 μενοί τι τῶν εἰς τὸν βίον· καὶ ἡ πολιτικὴ δὲ
 κοινωνία τοῦ συμφέροντος χάριν δοκεῖ καὶ ἐξ
 ἀρχῆς συνελθεῖν καὶ διαμένειν· τούτου γὰρ καὶ
 οἱ νομοθέται στοχάζονται, καὶ δίκαιόν φασιν
 5 εἶναι τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον. αἱ μὲν οὖν ἄλλαι
 κοινωναίαι κατὰ μέρη τοῦ συμφέροντος ἐφίενται, ¹⁵
 οἷον πλωτῆρες μὲν τοῦ κατὰ τὸν πλοῦν πρὸς
 ἐργασίαν χρημάτων ἢ τι τοιοῦτον, συστρατιῶται
 δὲ τοῦ κατὰ τὸν πόλεμον, εἴτε χρημάτων εἴτε

^a See c. v. 3, note.

- so do members of a comradeship^a; other friends hold special possessions in common, more or fewer in different cases, inasmuch as friendships vary in degree. The claims of justice also differ in different relationships. The mutual rights of parents and children are not the same as those between brothers; the obligations of members of a comradeship not the same as those of fellow-citizens; and similarly with
 3 the other forms of friendship. Injustice therefore also is differently constituted in each of these relationships: wrong is increasingly serious in proportion as it is done to a nearer friend. For example, it is more shocking to defraud a comrade of money than a fellow-citizen; or to refuse aid to a brother than to do so to a stranger; or to strike one's father than to strike somebody else. Similarly it is natural that the claims of justice also should increase with the nearness of the friendship, since friendship and
 justice exist between the same persons and are co-extensive in range. 2
- 4 But all associations are parts as it were of the association of the State. Travellers for instance associate together for some advantage, namely to procure some of their necessary supplies. But the political association too, it is believed, was originally formed, and continues to be maintained, for the advantage of its members: the aim of lawgivers is the good of the community, and justice is sometimes defined as that which is to the common advantage.
- 5 Thus the other associations aim at some particular advantage; for example sailors combine to seek the profits of seafaring in the way of trade or the like, comrades in arms the gains of warfare, their aim being either plunder, or victory over the

ARISTOTLE

νίκης ἢ πόλεως¹ ὀρεγόμενοι, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ
 φυλέται καὶ δημόται, [ἐνταῦθα² δὲ τῶν κοινωνιῶν
 δι' ἡδονὴν δοκοῦσι γίνεσθαι, <οἶον>³ θιασωτῶν²⁰
 καὶ ἔρανιστῶν· αὗται γὰρ θυσίας ἔνεκα καὶ
 συνουσίας. πᾶσαι δ' αὗται ὑπὸ τὴν πολιτικὴν
 ἐοίκασιν εἶναι· οὐ γὰρ τοῦ παρόντος συμφέροντος
 ἢ πολιτικῆ ἐφίεται, ἀλλ' εἰς ἅπαντα τὸν βίον.]
 θυσίας τε ποιούντες καὶ περὶ ταύτας συνόδους,
 τιμὰς τε⁴ ἀπονέμοντες τοῖς θεοῖς καὶ αὐτοῖς
 ἀναπαύσεις πορίζοντες μεθ' ἡδονῆς. αἱ γὰρ ἄρ-²⁵
 χαῖαι θυσίαι καὶ σύνοδοι φαίνονται γίνεσθαι μετὰ
 τὰς τῶν καρπῶν συγκομιδὰς, οἷον ἀπαρχαί·
 μάλιστα γὰρ ἐν τούτοις ἐσχόλαζον τοῖς καιροῖς.
 6 πᾶσαι δὲ φαίνονται αἱ κοινωνίαι μόρια τῆς
 πολιτικῆς εἶναι· ἀκολουθήσουσι δὲ αἱ τοιαῦται
 φιλίαι ταῖς τοιαύταις κοινωνίαις.³⁰
 x Πολιτείας δ' ἐστὶν εἶδη τρία, ἴσαι δὲ καὶ
 παρεκβάσεις, οἷον φθοραὶ τούτων. εἰσὶ δ' αἱ
 μὲν πολιτεῖαι βασιλεία τε καὶ ἀριστοκρατία,
 τρίτη δ' ἡ ἀπὸ τιμημάτων, ἣν τιμοκρατικὴν
 λέγειν οἰκεῖον φαίνεται, πολιτείαν δ' αὐτὴν εἰώ-³⁵
 2 θασιν οἱ πλείστοι καλεῖν. τούτων δὲ βελτίστη
 μὲν ἡ βασιλεία, χειρίστη δ' ἡ τιμοκρατία. παρ-
 ἑκβασις δὲ βασιλείας μὲν τυραννίς· ἄμφω γὰρ¹¹⁶⁰
 μοναρχίαι, διαφέρουσι δὲ πλείστον· ὁ μὲν γὰρ

¹ πόλεως <σωτηρίας> Richards.

² [ἐνταῦθα δὲ . . . βίον] Wilson.

³ Richards.

⁴ τε add. G.

^a Literally 'plunder or victory or a city'; the last words may refer either to colonists or exiles who obtain a new abode by conquest, or to civil war; but the expression is improbable, and perhaps should be emended to 'or to defend the city.'

enemy or the capture of a city ^a; and similarly the members of a tribe or parish ^b [And some associations appear to be formed for the sake of pleasure, for example religious guilds and dining-clubs, which are unions for sacrifice and social intercourse. But all these associations seem to be subordinate to the association of the State, which aims not at a temporary advantage but at one covering the whole of life.] combine to perform sacrifices and hold festivals in connexion with them, thereby both paying honour to the gods and providing pleasant holidays for themselves. For it may be noticed that the sacrifices and festivals of ancient origin take place after harvest, being in fact harvest-festivals; this is because that was the season of the year at which people had most leisure. All these associations then appear to be parts of the association of the State; and the limited friendships which we reviewed will correspond to the limited associations from which they spring.

- x Now there are three forms of constitution, and also an equal number of perversions or corruptions of those forms. The constitutions are Kingship, Aristocracy, and thirdly, a constitution based on a property classification, which it seems appropriate to describe as timocratic, although most people are accustomed to speak of it merely as a constitutional government or Republic. The best of these constitutions is Kingship, and the worst Timocracy. The perversion of Kingship is Tyranny. Both are monarchies, but there is a very wide difference between them: a tyrant studies his own advantage,

Analogy of private and political relationships. Classification of Constitutions.

^b The bracketed sentences, as Cook Wilson points out, look like an interpolated fragment of a parallel version.

τύραννος τὸ ἑαυτῷ συμφέρον σκοπεῖ, ὃ δὲ βασιλεὺς
 τὸ τῶν ἀρχομένων. οὐ¹ γάρ ἐστι βασιλεὺς ὁ
 μὴ αὐτάρκης καὶ πᾶσι τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς ὑπερέχων,
 ὃ δὲ τοιοῦτος οὐδενὸς προσδεῖται, τὰ ὠφέλιμα 5
 οὖν αὐτῷ μὲν οὐκ ἂν σκοποίη, τοῖς δ' ἀρχομένοις
 (ὃ γὰρ μὴ τοιοῦτος κληρωτὸς ἂν τις εἴη βασι-
 λεύς). ἡ δὲ τυραννὶς ἐξ ἐναντίας ταύτης, τὸ γὰρ
 ἑαυτῷ ἀγαθὸν διώκει. καὶ φανερώτερον ἐπὶ ταύ-
 τῃς ὅτι χειρίστη· κάκιστον γὰρ² τὸ ἐναντίον τῷ
 3 βελτίστῳ. μεταβαίνει δ' ἐκ βασιλείας εἰς τυραν-
 νίδα· φαυλότης γάρ ἐστι μοναρχίας ἢ τυραννίδος·
 ὃ δὴ μοχθηρὸς βασιλεὺς τύραννος γίνεται. ἐξ
 ἀριστοκρατίας δὲ εἰς ὀλιγαρχίαν κακία τῶν
 ἀρχόντων, οἱ νέμονται τὰ τῆς πόλεως παρὰ τὴν
 ἀξίαν, καὶ πάντα ἢ τὰ πλείστα τῶν ἀγαθῶν
 ἑαυτοῖς, καὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς αἰετὶ τοῖς αὐτοῖς, περὶ 15
 πλείστου ποιούμενοι τὸ πλουτεῖν· ὀλίγοι δὲ
 ἄρχουσι καὶ μοχθηροὶ ἀντὶ τῶν ἐπιεικεστάτων.
 ἐκ δὲ δὴ τιμοκρατίας εἰς δημοκρατίαν· σύνοροι
 γάρ εἰσιν αὗται· πλήθους γὰρ βούλεται καὶ ἡ
 τιμοκρατία εἶναι, καὶ ἴσοι πάντες οἱ ἐν τῷ τιμή-
 ματι. ἡκιστα δὲ μοχθηρόν ἐστιν ἡ δημοκρατία· 20
 ἐπὶ μικρὸν γὰρ παρεκβαίνει τὸ τῆς πολιτείας
 εἶδος. μεταβάλλουσι μὲν οὖν μάλισθ' οὕτως αἱ
 πολιτεῖαι· ἐλάχιστον γὰρ οὕτω καὶ ῥᾶστα μετα-

¹ οὐδὲ ? Richards.

² γὰρ Hel. Ar. : δὲ.

^a Probably the text should read 'a king is not a king at all unless—',

^b Literally 'a king elected by lot,' like the annual archon at Athens, who had the title of king, but retained only certain religious functions from the primitive monarchy.

a king that of his subjects. For a monarch is not a king^a if he does not possess independent resources, and is not better supplied with goods of every kind than his subjects; but a ruler so situated lacks nothing, and therefore will not study his own interests but those of his subjects. (A king who is not independent of his subjects will be merely a sort of titular king.^b) Tyranny is the exact opposite in this respect, for the tyrant pursues his own good. The inferiority of Tyranny among the perversions is more evident than that of Timocracy among the constitutions, for the opposite of the best must be the worst.

- 3 When a change of constitution takes place, Kingship passes into Tyranny, because Tyranny is the bad form of monarchy, so that a bad king becomes a tyrant. Aristocracy passes into Oligarchy owing to badness in the rulers, who do not distribute what the State has to offer according to desert, but give all or most of its benefits to themselves, and always assign the offices to the same persons, because they set supreme value upon riches; thus power is in the hands of a few bad men, instead of being in the hands of the best men. Timocracy passes into Democracy, there being an affinity between them, inasmuch as the ideal of Timocracy also is government by the mass of the citizens, and within the property qualification all are equal. Democracy is the least bad of the perversions, for it is only a very small deviation from the constitutional form of government.^c These are the commonest ways in which revolutions occur in states, since they involve the smallest change, and come about most easily.

^c *i.e.*, timocracy: see § 1 fin. •

ARISTOTLE

- 4 βαίνουσιν. ὁμοιώματα δ' αὐτῶν καὶ οἶον παρα-
δείγματα λάβοι τις ἂν καὶ ἐν ταῖς οἰκίαις. ἡ
μὲν γὰρ πατὴρ πρὸς υἱεῖς κοινωνία βασιλείας 25
ἔχει σχῆμα· τῶν τέκνων γὰρ τῷ πατρὶ μέλει.
ἐντεῦθεν δὲ καὶ Ὅμηρος τὸν Δία πατέρα προσ-
αγορεύει· πατρικὴ γὰρ ἀρχὴ βούλεται ἡ βασιλεία
εἶναι. ἐν Πέρσαις δ' ἡ τοῦ πατρὸς τυραννικὴ
χρῶνται γὰρ ὡς δούλοις τοῖς υἱέσιν. τυραννικὴ
δὲ καὶ ἡ δεσπότης πρὸς δούλους· τὸ γὰρ τοῦ 30
δεσπότης συμφέρον ἐν αὐτῇ πράττεται. αὕτη
μὲν οὖν ὀρθὴ φαίνεται, ἡ Περσικὴ δ' ἡμαρτημένη·
5 τῶν διαφερόντων γὰρ αἱ ἀρχαὶ διάφοροι. ἀνδρὸς
δὲ καὶ γυναικὸς ἀριστοκρατικὴ φαίνεται· κατ'
ἀξίαν γὰρ ὁ ἀνὴρ ἀρχεῖ, καὶ περὶ ταῦτα αἱ δεῖ τὸν
ἄνδρα· ὅσα δὲ γυναικὶ ἀρμόζει, ἐκείνη ἀποδίδωσιν. 35
ἀπάντων δὲ κυριεύων ὁ ἀνὴρ εἰς ὀλιγαρχίαν
μεθίστησιν· παρὰ τὴν ἀξίαν γὰρ αὐτὸ ποιεῖ, καὶ
οὐχ ἡ ἀμείνων. ἐνίοτε δὲ ἀρχουσιν αἱ γυναῖκες 1161 a
ἐπὶ κληροῖ οὖσαι· οὐ δὴ γίνονται κατ' ἀρετὴν αἱ
ἀρχαί, ἀλλὰ διὰ πλοῦτον καὶ δύναμιν, καθάπερ
6 ἐν ταῖς ὀλιγαρχίαις. τιμοκρατικῇ δ' ἔοικεν ἡ
τῶν ἀδελφῶν· ἴσοι γάρ, πλὴν ἐφ' ὅσον ταῖς 5
ἡλικίαις διαλλάττουσιν· διόπερ ἂν πολὺ ταῖς
ἡλικίαις διαφέρωσιν, οὐκέτι ἀδελφικὴ γίνεται ἡ
φιλία. δημοκρατία δὲ μάλιστα μὲν ἐν ταῖς
ἀδεσπότοις τῶν οἰκήσεων (ἐνταῦθα γὰρ πάντες
ἐξ ἴσου), <γίνεται δὲ>¹ καὶ ἐν αἷς ἀσθενὲς ὁ
ἀρχων καὶ ἐκάστῳ ἐξουσία.
- xi Καθ' ἐκάστην δὲ τῶν πολιτειῶν φιλία φαίνεται, 10

¹ <γίνεται δὲ> Par. (Richards).

- 4 One may find likenesses and so to speak models of these various forms of constitution in the household. The relationship of father to sons is regal in type, since a father's first care is for his children's welfare. This is why Homer styles Zeus 'father,' for the ideal of kingship is paternal government. Among the Persians paternal rule is tyrannical, for the Persians use their sons as slaves. The relation of master to slaves is also tyrannic, since in it the master's interest is aimed at. The autocracy of a master appears to be right, that of the Persian father wrong; for different subjects should be under
5 different forms of rule. The relation of husband to wife seems to be in the nature of an aristocracy: the husband rules in virtue of fitness, and in matters that belong to a man's sphere; matters suited to a woman he hands over to his wife. When the husband controls everything, he transforms the relationship into an oligarchy, for he governs in violation of fitness, and not in virtue of superiority. And sometimes when the wife is an heiress it is she who rules. In these cases then authority goes not by virtue but
6 by wealth and power, as in an oligarchy. The relation between brothers constitutes a sort of timocracy; they are equals, save in so far as they differ in age; hence, if the divergence in age be great, the friendship between them cannot be of the fraternal type. Democracy appears most fully in households without a master, for in them all the members are equal; but it also prevails where the ruler of the house is weak, and everyone is allowed to do what he likes.
- xi Under each of these forms of government we find friendship existing between ruler and ruled, to the

The analogous family relationships.

ARISTOTLE

ἐφ' ὅσον καὶ τὸ δίκαιον, βασιλεῖ μὲν πρὸς τοὺς βασιλευμένους ἐν ὑπεροχῇ εὐεργεσίας· εὖ γὰρ ποιεῖ τοὺς βασιλευμένους, εἴπερ ἀγαθὸς ὢν ἐπιμελεῖται αὐτῶν ἢ εὖ πράττωσιν, ὥσπερ νομεὺς προβάτων· ὅθεν καὶ Ὀμηρος τὸν Ἄγα-¹⁵
 2 μέμνονα ποιμένα λαῶν εἶπεν.¹ τοιαύτη δέ, καὶ ἡ πατρικὴ (διαφέρει δὲ τῷ μεγέθει τῶν εὐεργετημάτων· αἴτιος γὰρ τοῦ εἶναι, δοκοῦντος μεγίστου, καὶ τροφῆς καὶ παιδείας· καὶ τοῖς προγόνοις δὲ ταῦτα² ἀπονέμεται)· φύσει τε γὰρ ἀρχικὸν πατὴρ υἱῶν καὶ πρόγονοι ἐκγόνων καὶ βασιλεὺς βασιλευ-
 3 μένων. ἐν ὑπεροχῇ δὲ αἱ φιλίαι αὗται, διὸ καὶ²⁰ τιμῶνται οἱ γονεῖς· καὶ τὸ δίκαιον δὴ ἐν τούτοις οὐ ταῦτο ἀλλὰ τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν, οὕτω γὰρ καὶ ἡ
 4 φιλία. καὶ ἀνδρὸς δὲ πρὸς γυναῖκα ἡ αὐτὴ φιλία καὶ ἐν ἀριστοκρατίᾳ· κατ' ἀρετὴν γάρ, καὶ τῷ ἀμείνονι πλεον [ἀγαθόν],³ καὶ τὸ ἀρμόζον ἐκά-
 5 στῳ· οὕτω δὲ καὶ τὸ δίκαιον. ἡ δὲ τῶν ἀδελφῶν²⁵ τῇ ἐταιρικῇ ἔοικεν· ἴσοι γὰρ καὶ ἡλικιώται, οἱ τοιοῦτοι δ' ὁμοπαθεῖς καὶ ὁμοήθεις ὥς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ. ἔοικε δὲ ταύτῃ καὶ ἡ κατὰ τὴν τιμοκρατικὴν·

¹ εἶπεν om. K^b.² ταῦτα ? Richards: ταῦτα.³ ed.

^a Sc., because their children cannot fully repay their services in kind.

^b The word 'good' looks like an interpolation. The sense seems to require 'a larger share of affection' (φιλίας, or φιλῆσεως, understood); it is clear throughout that in an unequal friendship the superior party receives not more but less benefit (though more affection) than the inferior. In c. x. 5 the conjugal association is compared to the aristocratic polity in virtue of the fact that the superior party has more power, not more benefit; and from c. x. 3 it appears that when the ruling class takes all or most of

same extent as justice. The friendship of a king for his subjects is one of superiority in beneficence ; for a king does good to his subjects, inasmuch as being good he studies to promote their welfare, as a shepherd studies the welfare of his sheep ; hence Homer called Agamemnon ' shepherd of the people.'

Correspond-
ing analogy
of accom-
panying
Affection.

2 The friendship of a father for his child is of the same kind (only here the benefits bestowed are greater, for the father is the source of the child's existence, which seems to be the greatest of all boons, and of its nurture and education ; and we also ascribe the same benefits to our forefathers). For it is as natural for a father to rule his children, and forefathers those descended from them, as for a king to rule his subjects. These friendships then involve a superiority of benefits on one side, which is why parents receive honour as well as service.^a The claims of justice also, therefore, in these relations are not the same on both sides, but proportionate to desert, as is the affection bestowed.

4 The friendship between husband and wife again is the same as that which prevails between rulers and subjects in an aristocracy ; for it is in proportion to excellence, and the better party receives the larger share [of good],^b whilst each party receives what is appropriate to each ; and the same is true of the claims of justice on either side.

5 Friendship between brothers is like that between members of a comradeship : the two parties are equal in station and age, and this usually implies identity of feelings and of character. The counterpart of fraternal friendship is that which exists under

the benefits for itself, the government is no longer an aristocracy but an oligarchy.

ARISTOTLE

ἴσοι γὰρ οἱ πολῖται βούλονται καὶ ἐπιεικεῖς εἶναι·
 ἐν μέρει δὴ τὸ ἄρχειν, καὶ ἐξ ἴσου· οὕτω δὴ καὶ 30
 6 ἡ φιλία. ἐν δὲ ταῖς παρεκβάσεσιν, ὥσπερ καὶ
 τὸ δίκαιον ἐπὶ μικρὸν ἐστίν, οὕτω καὶ ἡ φιλία,¹
 καὶ ἥκιστα ἐν τῇ χειρίστη· ἐν τυραννίᾳ γὰρ
 οὐδὲν ἡ μικρὸν φιλίας. ἐν οἷς γὰρ μηδὲν κοινόν
 ἐστι τῷ ἄρχοντι καὶ ἀρχομένῳ, οὐδὲ φιλία· οὐδὲ
 γὰρ δίκαιον· ἀλλ'² οἷον τεχνίτῃ πρὸς ὄργανον καὶ
 ψυχῇ πρὸς σῶμα [καὶ δεσπότῃ πρὸς δοῦλον].³ 35
 ὠφελεῖται μὲν γὰρ πάντα ταῦτα ὑπὸ τῶν χρω- 1161
 μένων, φιλία δ' οὐκ ἐστὶ πρὸς τὰ ἄψυχα οὐδὲ
 δίκαιον. ἀλλ' οὐδὲ πρὸς ἵππον ἢ βοῦν, οὐδὲ πρὸς
 δοῦλον ἢ δοῦλος. οὐδὲν γὰρ κοινόν ἐστίν· ὁ γὰρ
 δοῦλος ἐμψυχον ὄργανον, τὸ δ' ὄργανον ἄψυχος
 7 δοῦλος. ἡ μὲν οὖν δοῦλος, οὐκ ἐστὶ φιλία πρὸς 5
 αὐτόν, ἡ δ' ἄνθρωπος· δοκεῖ γὰρ εἶναι τι δίκαιον
 παντὶ ἀνθρώπῳ πρὸς πάντα τὸν δυνάμενον κοινω-
 νῆσαι νόμου καὶ συνθήκης· καὶ φιλία⁴ δὴ, καθ'
 8 ὅσον ἄνθρωπος. ἐπὶ μικρὸν δὴ καὶ ἐν ταῖς
 τυραννίσιν αἱ φιλίαι καὶ τὸ δίκαιον, ἐν δὲ ταῖς
 δημοκρατίαις ἐπὶ πλείστον· πολλὰ γὰρ τὰ κοινὰ 10
 ἴσοις οὖσιν.

xii Ἐν κοινωνίᾳ μὲν οὖν πᾶσα φιλία ἐστίν, καθάπερ
 εἴρηται· ἀφορίσειε δ' ἂν τις τήν τε συγγενικὴν

¹ φιλία K^b: φιλία ἐστί.³ Ramsauer.² ἀλλ' om. K^b.⁴ φιλία Ar.: φιλίας.^a These words are better omitted, as they anticipate what comes below.^b c. ix. 2.

the timocratic form of constitution ; since the ideal of Timocracy is that all citizens shall be equal and shall be good, so that they all rule in turn, and all have an equal share of power ; and therefore the friendship between them is also one of equality.

6 Under the perverted forms of constitution there is little room for friendship, any more than there is for justice, and least of all in the worst : there is little or no friendship between ruler and subjects in a tyranny. For where there is nothing in common between ruler and ruled, there can be no friendship between them either, any more than there can be justice. It is like the relation between a craftsman and his tool, or between the soul and the body [or between master and slave^a] : all these instruments it is true are benefited by the persons who use them, but there can be no friendship, nor justice, towards inanimate things ; indeed not even towards a horse or an ox, nor yet towards a slave as slave. For master and slave have nothing in common : a slave is a living tool, just as a tool is an inanimate

7 slave. Therefore there can be no friendship with a slave as slave, though there can be as human being : for there seems to be some room for justice in the relations of every human being with every other that is capable of participating in law and contract, and hence friendship also is possible with everyone 8 so far as he is a human being. Hence even in tyrannies friendship and justice exist to a small extent between ruler and subjects ; but there is most room for them in democracies, where the citizens being equal have many things in common.

xii All friendship, as we have said,^b involves community ; but the friendship between relatives and

ARISTOTLE

καὶ τὴν ἑταιρικήν. αἱ δὲ πολιτικαὶ καὶ φυλετικαὶ
καὶ συμπλοικαί, καὶ ὅσαι τοιαῦται, κοιωνικαῖς
ἐοίκασι μᾶλλον· οἷον γὰρ καθ' ὁμολογίαν τινὰ 15
φαίνονται εἶναι. εἰς ταύτας δὲ τάξειεν ἄν τις
2 καὶ τὴν ξενικήν. καὶ ἡ συγγενική δὲ φαίνεται
πολυειδὴς εἶναι, ἡρτηῆσθαι δὲ πᾶσα ἐκ τῆς πα-
τρικῆς. οἱ γονεῖς μὲν γὰρ στέργουσι τὰ τέκνα
ὥς ἑαυτῶν τι [ὄντα],¹ τὰ δὲ τέκνα τοὺς γονεῖς
ὥς ἀπ' ἐκείνων [τι]² ὄντα. μᾶλλον δ' ἴσασι οἱ 20
γονεῖς τὰ ἐξ αὐτῶν ἢ τὰ γεννηθέντα ὅτι ἐκ τούτων·
καὶ μᾶλλον συνωκείωται τὸ ἀφ' οὗ τῷ γεννηθέντι
ἢ τὸ γενόμενον τῷ ποιήσαντι, τὸ γὰρ ἐξ αὐτοῦ
οἰκεῖον τῷ ἀφ' οὗ, οἷον ὁδοὺς ἢ θρίξ ἢ ὅτιοῦν
τῷ ἔχοντι,³ ἐκείνῳ δ' οὐθὲν τὸ ἀφ' οὗ, ἢ ἦττον.
καὶ τῷ πλήθει δὲ τοῦ χρόνου· οἱ μὲν γὰρ εὐθύς 25
γενόμενα στέργουσιν, τὰ δὲ προελθόντος⁴ χρόνου
3 τοὺς γονεῖς, σύνεσι ἢ αἰσθησι λαβόντα. ἐκ
τούτων δὲ δῆλον καὶ δι' ἃ φιλοῦσι μᾶλλον αἱ
μητέρες. γονεῖς μὲν οὖν τέκνα φιλοῦσιν ὥς
ἑαυτοὺς (τὰ γὰρ ἐξ αὐτῶν οἷον ἕτεροι αὐτοὶ τῷ
κεχωρίσθαι), τέκνα δὲ γονεῖς ὥς ἀπ' ἐκείνων
πεφυκότα, ἀδελφοὶ δ' ἀλλήλους τῷ ἐκ τῶν αὐτῶν 30
πεφυκέναι· ἢ γὰρ πρὸς ἐκείνα ταυτότης ἀλλήλοις
ταυτοποιεῖ· ὅθεν φασὶ ταῦτόν αἷμα καὶ ρίζαν

¹ [ὄντα] ? Richards.

² [τι] om. K^b.

³ τῷ ἔχοντι om. pr. K^b.

⁴ προελθόντος χρόνου K^b: προελθόντα τοῖς χρόνοις.

^a Cf. vi. xi. 2 and note.

^b That is, greater certainty of parentage, closer affinity and earlier commencement of affection.

^c Or 'a second self produced by separation from oneself.'

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VIII. xii. 1-3

between members of a comradeship may be set apart as being less in the nature of partnerships than are the friendships between fellow-citizens, fellow-tribesmen, shipmates, and the like ; since these seem to be founded as it were on a definite compact. With the latter friendships may be classed family ties of hospitality between foreigners.

Kinsmen
and Com-
rades.

- 2 Friendship between relatives itself seems to include a variety of species, but all appear to derive from the affection of parent for child. For parents love their children as part of themselves, whereas children love their parents as the source of their being. Also parents know their offspring with more certainty than children know their parentage ; and progenitor is more attached to progeny than progeny to progenitor, since that which springs from a thing belongs to the thing from which it springs—for instance, a tooth or hair or what not to its owner—whereas the thing it springs from does not belong to it at all, or only in a less degree. The affection of the parent exceeds that of the child in duration also ; parents love their children as soon as they are born, children their parents only when time has elapsed and they have acquired understanding,^a or at
- 3 least perception. These considerations ^b also explain why parental affection is stronger in the mother. Parents then love their children as themselves (one's offspring being as it were another self—other because separate ^c) ; children love their parents as the source of their being ; brothers love each other as being from the same source, since the identity of their relations to that source identifies them with one another, which is why we speak of ' being of the same blood ' or ' of the same stock ' or the like ;

Parental
and filial
Affection.

ARISTOTLE

καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα· εἰσὶ δὴ ταυτό πως καὶ ἐν διηρη-
 4 μένοις. μέγα δὲ πρὸς φιλίαν καὶ τὸ σύντροφον
 καὶ τὸ καθ' ἡλικίαν· ἡλιξ γὰρ ἡλικά, καὶ οἱ 35
 συνήθεις ἑταῖροι· διὸ καὶ ἡ ἀδελφικὴ τῇ ἐταιρικῇ
 ὁμοιοῦται. ἀνεψιοὶ δὲ καὶ οἱ λοιποὶ συγγενεῖς 1162 a
 ἐκ τούτων συνωκείωνται· τῷ γὰρ ἀπὸ τῶν αὐτῶν
 εἶναι· γίνονται δ' οἱ μὲν οἰκειότεροι οἱ δ' ἀλ-
 λοτριώτεροι τῷ σύνεγγυς ἢ πόρρω τὸν ἀρχηγόν
 5 εἶναι. ἔστι δ' ἡ μὲν πρὸς γονεῖς φιλία τέκνοις,
 καὶ ἀνθρώποις πρὸς θεούς,¹ ὥς πρὸς ἀγαθὸν καὶ 5
 ὑπερέχον· εὖ γὰρ πεποιήκασιν τὰ μέγιστα· τοῦ
 γὰρ εἶναι καὶ τραφῆναι αἴτιοι, καὶ γενομένοις
 6 τοῦ παιδευθῆναι. ἔχει δὲ καὶ τὸ ἡδὺ καὶ τὸ
 χρήσιμον ἢ τοιαύτη φιλία μᾶλλον τῶν ὀθνείων,
 ὅσῳ καὶ κοινότερος ὁ βίος αὐτοῖς ἐστίν. ἔστι δὲ
 καὶ ἐν τῇ ἀδελφικῇ ἄπερ καὶ ἐν τῇ ἐταιρικῇ, καὶ 10
 μᾶλλον ἐν τοῖς ἐπιεικέσι καὶ ὅλως ἐν τοῖς ὁμοίοις,
 ὅσῳ οἰκειότεροι καὶ ἐκ γενετῆς ὑπάρχουσι στέρ-
 γοντες ἀλλήλους, καὶ ὅσῳ ὁμοηθέστεροι οἱ ἐκ
 τῶν αὐτῶν καὶ σύντροφοι καὶ παιδευθέντες
 ὁμοίως· καὶ ἡ κατὰ τὸν χρόνον δοκιμασία πλείστη

¹ καὶ . . . θεούς secl. Ramsauer.

^a ἡλιξ ἡλικά sc. *τέρπει*, *Rhet.* i. xi. 1371 b 15. 'Crabbed age and youth cannot live together.' In its fuller form the proverb continues, 'the old get on with the old,' ἡλιξ ἡλικά *τέρπε*, *γέρων δέ τε τέρπε γέροντα* schol. ad Plat. *Phaedr.* 240 c. The next phrase appears to be a proverb as well.

brothers are therefore in a manner the same being,
 4 though embodied in separate persons. But friendship between brothers is also greatly fostered by their common upbringing and similarity of age; 'two of an age agree,'^a and 'familiarity breeds fellowship,' which is why the friendship between brothers resembles that between members of a comradeship. Cousins and other relatives derive their attachment from the fraternal relationship, since it is due to their descent from the same ancestor; and their sense of attachment is greater or less, according as the common ancestor is nearer or more remote.

5 The affection of children for their parents, like that of men for the gods, is the affection for what is good, and superior to oneself; for their parents have bestowed on them the greatest benefits in being the cause of their existence and rearing, and later
 6 of their education. Also the friendship between parents and children affords a greater degree both of pleasure and of utility than that between persons unrelated to each other, inasmuch as they have more in common in their lives.

Friendship between brothers has the same characteristics as that between members of a comradeship, and has them in a greater degree, provided they are virtuous, or resemble one another in any way^b; inasmuch as brothers belong more closely to each other, and have loved each other from birth, and inasmuch as children of the same parents, who have been brought up together and educated alike, are more alike in character; also with brothers the test of time has been longest and most reliable.

Fraternal
 Affection.

^b Sc. not only when they are alike in virtue.

ARISTOTLE

7 καὶ βεβαιοτάτη. ἀνάλογον δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς λοιποῖς 15
 τῶν συγγενῶν τὰ φιλικά. ἀνδρὶ δὲ καὶ γυναικὶ
 φιλία δοκεῖ κατὰ φύσιν ὑπάρχειν· ἄνθρωπος γὰρ
 τῇ φύσει συνδυαστικὸν μᾶλλον ἢ πολιτικόν, ὅσω
 πρότερον καὶ ἀναγκαιότερον οἰκία πόλεως, καὶ
 τεκνοποιία κοινότερον τοῖς ζώοις. τοῖς μὲν οὖν
 ἄλλοις ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον ἡ κοινωνία ἐστίν, οἱ δ'
 ἄνθρωποι οὐ μόνον τῆς τεκνοποιίας χάριν συν- 20
 οικοῦσιν, ἀλλὰ καὶ τῶν εἰς τὸν βίον· εὐθὺς γὰρ
 διήρηται τὰ ἔργα, καὶ ἔστιν ἕτερα ἀνδρὸς καὶ
 γυναικός· ἐπαρκοῦσιν οὖν ἀλλήλοις, εἰς τὸ κοινὸν
 τιθέντες τὰ ἴδια. διὰ ταῦτα δὲ καὶ τὸ χρήσιμον
 εἶναι δοκεῖ καὶ τὸ ἡδὺ ἐν ταύτῃ τῇ φιλίᾳ. εἴη 25
 δ' ἂν καὶ δι' ἀρετῇ, εἰ ἐπιεικέις εἶεν· ἔστι γὰρ
 ἑκατέρου ἀρετῇ, καὶ χαίροιν ἂν τῷ τοιούτῳ.
 σύνδεσμος δὲ τὰ τέκνα δοκεῖ εἶναι, διὸ θάπτον
 οἱ ἄτεκνοι διαλύονται· τὰ γὰρ τέκνα κοινὸν ἀγαθὸν
 8 ἀμφοῖν, συνέχει δὲ τὸ κοινόν. τὸ δὲ πῶς συμ-
 βιωτέον ἀνδρὶ πρὸς γυναῖκα καὶ ὅλως φίλῳ πρὸς 30
 φίλον, οὐδὲν ἕτερον φαίνεται ζητεῖσθαι ἢ πῶς
 δίκαιον· οὐ γὰρ ταῦτόν φαίνεται τῷ φίλῳ πρὸς
 τὸν φίλον καὶ τὸν ὀθνεῖον καὶ τὸν ἐταῖρον καὶ τὸν
 συμφοιτητήν.

xiii Τριττῶν δ' οὐσῶν φιλιῶν, καθάπερ ἐν ἀρχῇ
 εἴρηται, καὶ καθ' ἐκάστην τῶν μὲν ἐν ἰσότητι 35

^a i.e., in proportion to the closeness of the relationship:
 cf. § 4 fin.

^b See i. vii. 6, note.

^c More universal than the gregarious instinct, which
 finds its highest expression in the state.

- 7 The degrees of friendship between other relatives vary correspondingly.^a

The friendship between husband and wife appears to be a natural instinct; since man is by nature a pairing creature even more than he is a political creature,^b inasmuch as the family is an earlier and more fundamental institution than the State, and the procreation of offspring a more general^c characteristic of the animal creation. So whereas with the other animals the association of the sexes aims only at continuing the species, human beings cohabit not only for the sake of begetting children but also to provide the needs of life; for with the human race division of labour begins at the outset, and man and woman have different functions; thus they supply each other's wants, putting their special capacities into the common stock. Hence the friendship of man and wife seems to be one of utility and pleasure combined. But it may also be based on virtue, if the partners be of high moral character; for either sex has its special virtue, and this may be the ground of attraction. Children, too, seem to be a bond of union, and therefore childless marriages are more easily dissolved; for children are a good possessed by both parents in common, and common property holds people together.

Conjugal
Affection.

- 8 The question what rules of conduct should govern the relations between husband and wife, and generally between friend and friend, seems to be ultimately a question of justice. There are different claims of justice between friends and strangers, between members of a comradeship and schoolfellows.

xiii There are then, as we said at the outset, three kinds of friendship, and in each kind there are both

ARISTOTLE

φίλων ὄντων τῶν δὲ καθ' ὑπεροχήν (καὶ γὰρ
 ὁμοίως ἀγαθοὶ φίλοι γίνονται καὶ ἁμείνων· χείρονα, 1162b
 ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡδῆς καὶ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον, ἰσάζοντες
 ταῖς ὠφελείαις καὶ διαφέροντες), τοὺς ἴσους μὲν
 κατ' ἰσότητα δεῖ τῷ φιλεῖν καὶ τοῖς λαμπροῖς
 ἰσάζειν, τοὺς δ' ἀνίσους τῷ τὸ¹ ἀνάλογον ταῖς
 2 ὑπεροχαῖς ἀποδιδόναι. γίνεταί δὲ τὰ ἐγκλήματα 5
 καὶ αἱ μέμψεις ἐν τῇ κατὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλίᾳ ἢ
 μόνη ἢ μάλιστα, εὐλόγως. οἱ μὲν γὰρ δι' ἀρετὴν
 φίλοι ὄντες εὖ δρᾶν ἀλλήλους προθυμοῦνται
 (τοῦτο γὰρ ἀρετῆς καὶ φιλίας), πρὸς τοῦτο δ'
 ἀμιλλωμένων οὐκ ἔστιν ἐγκλήματα οὐδὲ μάχα-
 τὸν γὰρ φιλοῦντα καὶ εὖ ποιοῦντα οὐδεὶς δυσ- 10
 χεραίνει, ἀλλ' ἐὰν ἡ χαρίεις, ἀμύνεται εὖ δρῶν.
 ὁ δ' ὑπερβάλλον, τυγχάνων οὐ ἐφίεται, οὐκ ἂν
 ἐγκαλοίη τῷ φίλῳ, ἕκαστος² γὰρ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ
 3 ἐφίεται. οὐ πάνυ δ' οὐδ' ἐν τοῖς δι' ἡδονὴν· ἅμα
 γὰρ ἀμφοῖν γίνεται οὐ ὀρέγονται, εἰ τῷ συνδιαγείν
 χαίρουσιν· γελοῖος δ' ἂν φαίνοιτο καὶ ὁ³ ἐγκαλῶν 15
 4 τῷ μὴ τέρποντι, ἐξὸν μὴ συνημερεῖν. ἡ δὲ
 διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ἐγκληματική· ἐπ' ὠφελείᾳ γὰρ
 χρώμενοι ἀλλήλοις αἰεὶ τοῦ⁴ πλείονος δέονται, καὶ

¹ τῷ τὸ Coraes: τὸ (τῷ corr. Par. 1417), κατὰ τὸ Γ.

² ἕκαστος ΓΜ^b, ἕκαστος . . . ὀρέγεται secl. Ramsauer.

³ καὶ ὁ: ὁ καὶ? ed.

⁴ τοῦ secludendum? ed.

^a i.e., the pleasure or utility as the case may be.

^b i.e., 'and by being good or pleasant or useful.'

^c The one who is less good or pleasant or useful must give more affection: see c. vi. 6, note, vii. 2.

^d The last clause is suspected as an interpolation.

friends who are on an equal footing and friends on a footing of disparity ; for two equally good men may be friends, or one better man and one worse ; and similarly with pleasant friends and with those who are friends for the sake of utility, who may be equal or may differ in the amount of the benefits^a which they confer. Those who are equals must make matters equal by loving each other, etc.,^b equally ; those who are unequal by making a return^c proportionate to the superiority of whatever kind on the one side.

The claims
of Friend-
ship
(a) between
Equals.

- 2 Complaints and recriminations occur solely or chiefly in friendships of utility, as is to be expected. In a friendship based on virtue each party is eager to benefit the other, for this is characteristic of virtue and of friendship ; and as they vie with each other in giving and not in getting benefit, no complaints nor quarrels can arise, since nobody is angry with one who loves him and benefits him, but on the contrary, if a person of good feeling, requites him with service in return ; and the one who outdoes the other in beneficence will not have any complaint against his friend, since he gets what he desires,
- 3 and what each man desires is the good.^d Nor again are complaints likely to occur between friends whose motive is pleasure either ; for if they enjoy each other's company, both alike get what they wish for ; and indeed it would seem ridiculous to find fault with somebody for not being agreeable to you, when you need not associate with him if you do not
- 4 want to do so. But a friendship whose motive is utility is liable to give rise to complaints. For here the friends associate with each other for profit, and so each always wants more, and thinks he is getting

ARISTOTLE

ἔλαττον ἔχειν οἴονται τοῦ προσήκοντος, καὶ
 μέμφονται ὅτι οὐχ ὅσων δέονται τοσοῦτων τυγ-
 χάνουσιν ἄξιοι ὄντες· οἱ δ' εὖ ποιούντες οὐ δύναν- 20
 ται ἐπαρκεῖν τῷσαῦτα ὅσων οἱ πάσχοντες δέονται.
 5 ἔοικε δέ, καθάπερ τὸ δίκαιόν ἐστι διττὸν, τὸ
 μὲν ἄγραφον τὸ δὲ κατὰ νόμον, καὶ τῆς κατὰ τὸ
 χρήσιμον φιλίας ἢ μὲν ἠθικῇ ἢ δὲ νομικῇ εἶναι.
 γίνεται οὖν τὰ ἐγκλήματα μάλισθ' ὅταν μὴ κατὰ
 6 τὴν αὐτὴν συναλλάξωσι καὶ διαλύωνται. ἔστι 25
 δὴ¹ νομικῇ μὲν ἢ² ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς, ἢ μὲν πάμπαν ἀγοραία
 ἐκ χειρὸς εἰς χεῖρα, ἢ δὲ ἐλευθεριωτέρα εἰς
 χρόνον, καθ' ὁμολογίαν δὲ τί ἀντὶ τίνος· δηλὸν
 δ' ἐν ταύτῃ τὸ ὀφείλημα κοῦκ ἀμφίλογον, φιλικὸν
 δὲ τὴν ἀναβολὴν ἔχει· διὸ παρ' ἐνίοις οὐκ εἰσὶ
 τούτων δίκαι, ἀλλ' οἴονται δεῖν στέργειν τοὺς 30
 7 κατὰ πίστιν συναλλάξαντας. ἢ δ' ἠθικῇ οὐκ
 ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς, ἀλλ' ὡς φίλῳ δωρεῖται ἢ ὅτιδῆποτε
 ἄλλο· κομίζεσθαι δὲ ἀξιοῖ τὸ ἴσον ἢ πλεόν, ὡς
 οὐ δεδωκὼς ἀλλὰ χρήσας· οὐχ ὁμοίως δὲ συν-
 8 ἀλλάξας καὶ διαλυόμενος ἐγκαλέσει. τοῦτο δὲ
 συμβαίνει διὰ τὸ βούλεσθαι μὲν πάντας ἢ τοὺς 35
 πλείστους τὰ καλά, προαιρεῖσθαι δὲ τὰ ὠφέλιμα·
 καλὸν δὲ τὸ εὖ ποιεῖν μὴ ἵνα ἀντιπάθῃ, ὠφέλιμον 1163
 9 δὲ τὸ εὐεργετῆσθαι. δυναμένῳ δὲ ἀνταποδοτέον
 τὴν ἀξίαν ὣν ἔπαθεν, καὶ ἐκόντι³. ἄκοντα γὰρ

¹ δὲ L^b, δ' ἢ M^b.

² ἢ om M^b.

³ καὶ ἐκόντι om. K^b.

^a i.e., either a 'moral obligation' or a contract enforceable at law. It is noteworthy that the term 'friendship' is stretched to include the latter.

^b Or 'more liberal in point of time.'

^c Sc., if disappointed of the return he expects.

less than his due ; and they make it a grievance that they do not get as much as they want and deserve ; and the one who is doing a service can never supply all that the one receiving it wants.

- 5 It appears that, as justice is of two kinds, one unwritten and the other defined by law, so the friendship based on utility may be either moral ^a or legal. Hence occasions for complaint chiefly occur when the type of friendship in view at the conclusion of the transaction is not the same as when the
6 relationship was formed. Such a connexion when on stated terms is one of the legal type, whether it be a purely business matter of exchange on the spot, or a more liberal accommodation for future repayment,^b though still with an agreement as to the *quid pro quo* ; and in the latter case the obligation is clear and cannot cause dispute, though there is an element of friendliness in the delay allowed, for which reason in some states there is no action at law in these cases, it being held that the party to a contract involving credit must abide by the con-
7 sequences. The moral type on the other hand is not based on stated terms, but the gift or other service is given as to a friend, although the giver expects to receive an equivalent or greater return, as though it had not been a free gift but a loan ; and as he ends the relationship in a different spirit from that in which he began it, he will complain.^c
8 The reason of this is that all men, or most men, wish what is noble but choose what is profitable ; and while it is noble to render a service not with an eye to receiving one in return, it is profitable to
9 receive one. One ought therefore, if one can, to return the equivalent of services received, and to

ARISTOTLE

- φίλον οὐ ποιητέον· ὥς δὴ διαμαρτόντα ἐν τῇ
 ἀρχῇ καὶ εἰ παθόντα ὑφ' οὗ οὐκ ἔδει—οὐ γὰρ
 ὑπὸ φίλου, οὐδὲ δι' αὐτὸ¹ τοῦτο δρῶντος—καθ-⁵
 ἄπερ οὖν ἐπὶ ῥήτοις εὐεργετηθέντα διαλυτέον. καὶ
 ὁμολογήσαι² δ' ἂν δυνάμενος ἀποδώσειν ἀδυνα-
 τούντα δ' οὐδ' ὁ διδοὺς³ ἠξίωσεν αὐν). ὥστ' εἰ
 δυνατόν,⁴ ἀποδοτέον. ἐν ἀρχῇ δ' ἐπισκεπτέον
 ὑφ' οὗ εὐεργετεῖται καὶ ἐπὶ τίνι, ὅπως ἐπὶ τούτοις
 10 ὑπομένη ἢ μή. ἀμφισβήτησιν δ' ἔχει πότερα δεῖ
 τῇ τοῦ παθόντος ὠφελείᾳ μετρεῖν καὶ πρὸς ταύτην
 ποιεῖσθαι τὴν ἀνταπόδοσιν, ἢ τῇ τοῦ δράσαντος
 εὐεργεσίᾳ. οἱ μὲν γὰρ παθόντες τοιαυτὰ φασὶ
 λαβεῖν παρὰ τῶν εὐεργετῶν ἃ μικρὰ ἦν ἐκείνοις
 καὶ ἐξῆν παρ' ἐτέρων λαβεῖν, κατασμικρίζοντες·
 οἱ δ' ἀνάπαλιν τὰ μέγιστα τῶν παρ' αὐτοῖς, καὶ¹⁵
 ἃ παρ' ἄλλων οὐκ ἦν, καὶ ἐν κινδύνοις ἢ τοιαύταις
 11 χρεῖαις. ἀρ' οὖν διὰ μὲν τὸ χρήσιμον τῆς φιλίας
 οὔσης ἢ τοῦ παθόντος ὠφέλεια μέτρον ἐστίν;
 οὗτος γὰρ ὁ δεόμενος, καὶ ἐπαρκεῖ αὐτῷ ὥς
 κομιούμενος τὴν ἴσην· τοσαύτη οὖν γεγένηται ἢ
 ἐπικουρία ὅσον οὗτος ὠφέληται, καὶ ἀποδοτέον²⁰

¹ αὐτὸν? Richards.² ὁμολόγησε Vict. Muretus.³ διδοὺς K^b: δοὺς.⁴ δυνατόν K^b: δυνατός.

^a Lit., 'was not doing the service for its own sake,' or perhaps 'for the sake of friendship.' But probably the text should be corrected to read 'was not doing the service for one's own sake': cf. ix. x. 6 fin.

^b i.e., in any case of the sort, if at the outset the question of repayment were raised.

do so willingly; for one ought not to make a man one's friend if one is unwilling to return his favours. Recognizing therefore that one has made a mistake at the beginning and accepted a service from a wrong person—that is, a person who was not a friend, and was not acting disinterestedly^a—one should accordingly end the transaction as if one had accepted the service on stated terms. Also, one would agree^b to repay a service if able to do so (and if one were not able, the giver on his side too would not have expected repayment); hence, if possible, one ought to make a return. But one ought to consider at the beginning from whom one is receiving the service, and on what terms, so that one may accept it on those terms or else decline it.

- 10 Dispute may arise however as to the value of the service rendered. Is it to be measured by the benefit to the recipient, and the return made on that basis, or by the cost to the doer? The recipient will say that what he received was only a trifle to his benefactor, or that he could have got it from someone else: he beats down the value. The other on the contrary will protest that it was the most valuable thing he had to give, or that it could not have been obtained from anybody else, or that it was bestowed at a time of danger or in some similar
- 11 emergency. Perhaps then we may say that, when the friendship is one of utility, the measure of the service should be its value to the recipient, since it is he who wants it, and the other comes to his aid in the expectation of an equivalent return; therefore the degree of assistance rendered has been the amount to which the recipient has benefited, and

ARISTOTLE

δὴ αὐτῷ ὅσον ἐπηύρετο, ἢ καὶ πλέον· κάλλιον γάρ. ἐν δὲ ταῖς κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐγκλήματα μὲν οὐκ ἔστιν, μέτρῳ δ' ἔοικεν ἢ τοῦ δράσαντος προαίρεσις· τῆς ἀρετῆς γὰρ καὶ τοῦ ἡθους ἐν τῇ προαίρεσει τὸ κύριον.

- xiv Διαφέρονται δὲ καὶ ἐν ταῖς καθ' ὑπεροχὴν φιλίαις· ἀξιοὶ γὰρ ἑκάτερος πλέον ἔχειν, ὅταν δὲ 25 τοῦτο γίγνηται, διαλύεται ἡ φιλία. οἴεται γὰρ ὁ τε βελτίων προσήκειν αὐτῷ πλέον ἔχειν, τῷ γὰρ ἀγαθῷ νέμεσθαι πλέον· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ὁ ὠφελιμώτερος, ἀχρεῖον γὰρ ὄντα οὐ φασὶ δεῖν ἴσον ἔχειν, λειτουργίαν [τε]¹ γὰρ γίνεσθαι καὶ οὐ φιλίαν, εἰ μὴ κατ' ἀξίαν τῶν ἔργων ἔσται 30 τὰ ἐκ τῆς φιλίας. οἴονται γάρ, καθάπερ ἐν χρημάτων κοινωνία πλεῖον λαμβάνουσιν οἱ συμβαλλόμενοι² πλεῖον, οὕτω δεῖν καὶ ἐν τῇ φιλίᾳ. ὁ δ' ἐνδεὴς καὶ ὁ χείρων ἀνάπαλιν· φίλον γὰρ ἀγαθοῦ εἶναι τὸ ἐπαρκεῖν τοῖς ἐνδεέσι· τί γάρ, φασίν, ὄφελος σπουδαίῳ ἢ δυνάστη φίλον εἶναι, 35 2 μὴθέν γε μέλλοντα ἀπολαύειν; ἔοικε δ' οὖν³ 1163 ἑκάτερος ὀρθῶς ἀξιοῦν, καὶ δεῖν ἑκατέρω πλέον νέμειν ἐκ τῆς φιλίας, οὐ τοῦ αὐτοῦ δέ, ἀλλὰ τῷ μὲν ὑπερέχοντι τιμῆς, τῷ δ' ἐνδεεῖ κέρδους· τῆς μὲν γὰρ ἀρετῆς καὶ τῆς εὐεργεσίας ἢ τιμῇ γέρας, 3 τῆς δ' ἐνδείας ἐπικουρία τὸ κέρδος. οὕτω δ' 5 ἔχειν τοῦτο καὶ ἐν ταῖς πολιτείαις φαίνεται· οὐ γὰρ τιμᾶται ὁ μὴδὲν ἀγαθὸν τῷ κοινῷ πορίζων·

¹ [τε] om. Γ.

² συμβαλλόμενοι ? Richards.

³ οὖν add. K^b.

^a Lit. 'choice' in Aristotle's technical sense.

^b Cf v. ii. 12, iv. 2.

so he ought to pay back as much as he has got out of it ; or even more, for that will be more noble.

In friendships based on virtue, complaints do not arise, but the measure of the benefit seems to be the intention^a of the giver ; for intention is the predominant factor in virtue and in character.

xiv Differences also arise in friendships where there is disparity between the parties. Each claims to have more than the other, and this inevitably leads to a rupture. If one is a better man than the other, he thinks he has a right to more, for goodness deserves the larger share. And similarly when one is more useful than the other : if a man is of no use, they say, he ought not to have an equal share, for it becomes a charity and not a friendship at all, if what one gets out of it is not enough to repay one's trouble. For men think that it ought to be in a friendship as it is in a business partnership, where those who contribute more capital take more of the profits. On the other hand the needy or inferior person takes the opposite view : he maintains that it is the part of a good friend to assist those in need ; what is the use (he argues) of being friends with the good and great if one is to get nothing out of it ?

The claims
of Friend-
ship
(b) between
Unequals

2 Now it appears that each of these rival claims is right. Both parties should receive a larger share from the friendship, but not a larger share of the same thing : the superior should receive the larger share of honour, the needy one the larger share of profit ; for honour is the due reward of virtue and beneficence, while need obtains the aid it requires in pecuniary gain.

3 The same principle is seen to obtain in public life.^b
A citizen who contributes nothing of value to the

ARISTOTLE

τὸ κοινὸν γὰρ δίδεται τῷ τὸ κοινὸν εὐεργετοῦντι,
 ἢ τιμὴ δὲ κοινόν. οὐ γὰρ ἔστιν ἅμα χρηματίζεσθαι
 ἀπὸ τῶν κοινῶν καὶ τιμᾶσθαι· ἐν πᾶσι γὰρ τὸ
 ἔλαττον οὐδεὶς ὑπομένει. τῷ δὲ περὶ χρήματα ¹⁰
 ἔλαττουμένῳ τιμὴν ἀπονέμουσι καὶ τῷ δωροδόκῳ
 χρήματα· τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν γὰρ ἐπανισοῖ καὶ σώζει
 τὴν φιλίαν, καθάπερ εἴρηται.¹ οὕτω δὲ καὶ²
 τοῖς ἀνίστοις ὁμιλητέον, καὶ τῷ εἰς χρήματα
 ὠφελουμένῳ ἢ εἰς ἀρετὴν τιμὴν ἀνταποδοτέον,
⁴ ἀποδιδόντα³ τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον. τὸ δυνατόν γὰρ ἢ ¹⁵
 φιλία ἐπιζητεῖ, οὐ τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν· οὐδὲ γὰρ ἔστιν
 ἐν πᾶσι, καθάπερ ἐν ταῖς πρὸς τοὺς θεοὺς τιμαῖς
 καὶ τοὺς γονεῖς· οὐδεὶς γὰρ ἂν ποτε τὴν ἀξίαν
 ἀποδοίῃ, εἰς δύναμιν δὲ ὁ θεραπεύων ἐπικικῆς
 εἶναι δοκεῖ. διὸ καὶ δόξειεν οὐκ ἐξεῖναι νῦν
 πατέρα ἀπειπασθαι, πατρὶ δ' υἱόν· ὀφείλοντα γὰρ ²⁰
 ἀποδοτέον, οὐθὲν δὲ ποιήσας ἄξιον τῶν ὑπ-
 ηργμένων δέδρακεν, ὥστ' αἰεὶ ὀφείλει. οἷς δ' ὀφεί-
 λεται, ἐξουσία ἀφεῖναι· καὶ τῷ πατρὶ δὴ. ἅμα
 δ' ἴσως οὐδεὶς ποτ' ἂν ἀποστῆναι δοκεῖ μὴ
 ὑπερβάλλοντος μοχθηρίας· χωρὶς γὰρ τῆς φυσικῆς

¹ τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν . . . εἴρηται secludendum ² ed.

² καὶ <ἐν φιλίᾳ> Ramsauer.

³ ἀποδιδόντα K^b: ἀνταποδιδόντα.

^a This explains why a benefactor of the commonwealth must receive a reward in the shape of honour.

^b i.e., the friendly feeling between the citizens as such, see c. xi. 1. But that this is maintained by τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν has not been said before: indeed the phrase is an odd description of what precedes, and its applicability to private

common stock is not held in honour, for the common property is given to those who benefit the community, and honour is a part of the common property. For a man cannot expect to make money out of the community and to receive honour as well. For ^a nobody is content to have the smaller share all round, and so we pay honour to the man who suffers money loss by holding office, and give money to the one who takes bribes; since requital in accordance with desert restores equality, and is the preservative of friendship,^b as has been said above.

This principle therefore should also regulate the intercourse of friends who are unequal: the one who is benefited in purse or character must repay what he can, namely honour. For friendship exacts what is possible, not what is due; requital in accordance with desert is in fact sometimes impossible, for instance in honouring the gods, or one's parents: no one could ever render them the honour they deserve, and a man is deemed virtuous if he pays them all the regard that he can. Hence it would appear that a son never ought to disown his father, although a father may disown his son; for a debtor ought to pay what he owes, but nothing that a son can do comes up to the benefits he has received, so that a son is always in his father's debt. But a creditor may discharge his debtor, and therefore a father may disown his son. At the same time, no doubt it is unlikely that a father ever would abandon a son unless the son were excessively vicious; for natural affection apart, it is not in human nature to

friendship is denied just below. Perhaps 'since requital . . . above' is an interpolation.

ARISTOTLE

φιλίας τὴν ἐπικουρίαν ἀνθρωπικὸν μὴ διωθεῖσθαι. ²⁵
τῷ δὲ φευκτὸν ἢ οὐ σπουδαστὸν τὸ ἑπαρκεῖν,
μοχθηρῷ ὄντι· εὖ πάσχειν γὰρ οἱ πολλοὶ βούλονται,
τὸ δὲ ποιεῖν φεύγουσιν ὥς ἀλυσιτελές. περὶ μὲν
οὖν τούτων ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον εἰρήσθω.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, VIII. xiv. 4

•
reject the assistance that a son will be able to render. Whereas a bad son will look on the duty of supporting his father as one to be avoided, or at all events not eagerly undertaken ; for most people wish to receive benefits, but avoid bestowing them as unprofitable.

So much then for a discussion of these subjects.

I

- i Ἐν πάσαις δὲ ταῖς ἀνομοειδέσι¹ φιλίαις τὸ ἀνάλογον ἰσάζει καὶ σώζει τὴν φιλίαν, καθάπερ εἴρηται, οἷον καὶ ἐν τῇ πολιτικῇ τῷ σκυτοτόμῳ ἀντὶ τῶν ὑποδημάτων ἀμοιβὴ γίνεται κατ' ἀξίαν,³⁵
- 2 καὶ τῷ ὑφάντῃ καὶ τοῖς λοιποῖς. ἐνταῦθα μὲν 1164: οὖν πεπόρισται κοινὸν μέτρον τὸ νόμισμα, καὶ πρὸς τοῦτο δὴ πάντα ἀναφέρεται, καὶ τούτῳ μετρεῖται· ἐν δὲ τῇ ἐρωτικῇ ἐνίοτε μὲν ὁ ἐραστὴς ἐγκαλεῖ ὅτι ὑπερφιλῶν οὐκ ἀντιφιλεῖται, οὐθὲν ἔχων φιλητόν, εἰ οὕτως ἔτυχεν, πολλάκις δ' ὁ 5 ἐρώμενος ὅτι πρότερον ἐπαγγελλόμενος πάντα
- 3 νῦν οὐθὲν ἐπιτελεῖ. συμβαίνει δὲ τὰ τοιαῦτα,

¹ ἀνομοειδέσι L^b: ἀνομοιοεδέσι.

^a Or 'heterogeneous,' i.e. friendships between dissimilar people, e.g. one pleasant and the other useful, so that the benefits they confer on each other are different in kind. This class of friendship has not been named before, though it has been recognized, e.g. viii. iv. 1, 2. It is however incorrectly stated here that the notion of proportion has been applied to it; for the benefits exchanged in such friendships, though different in kind, are not 'proportional,' but actually equal in amount or value, just as much as in the friendships where they are the same in kind; see viii. vi. 7. The term 'proportion' has hitherto been used of 'unequal' friendships, where the superior party bestows more benefit (of whatever kind) than he receives, and

BOOK IX

- i IN all dissimilar ^a friendships, it is proportion, as has been said, that establishes equality and preserves the friendship; just as, in the relations between fellow-citizens, the shoemaker receives payment for his shoes, and the weaver and the other craftsmen for their products, according to value rendered. In these business relationships then a common measure has been devised, namely money, and this is a standard to which all things are referred and by which they are measured. But in sentimental friendships, the lover sometimes complains that his warmest affection meets with no affection in return, it may be because there is nothing in him to arouse affection; while the person loved frequently complains that the lover who formerly promised everything now fulfils none of his promises. Such disputes occur when

The claims of Friendship (*ctd.*): three difficulties solved cc. i-iii.
c. i. First Difficulty: how and by which party is the due return for a service to be measured? Answer: its measure should be the value of the service to the recipient.

equality is only restored by his receiving more affection than he bestows: see viii. vii. 2, xiii. 1 (and also xiv. 3, to which at first sight this passage might be taken to refer). No doubt a friendship might be both 'dissimilar' and 'unequal.' That between a good man and a superior in rank who also surpasses him in goodness, which seems to be contemplated at viii. vi. 6, is a complex example of this nature; the great man confers both material benefit and moral edification, the good man returns moral edification only, but makes up the deficit by the greater regard which the great man's superior goodness enables him to feel.

ARISTOTLE

ἐπειδὴν ὁ μὲν δι' ἡδονὴν τὸν ἐρώμενον φιλεῖ, ὁ δὲ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον τὸν ἐραστήν, ταῦτα δὲ μὴ ἀμφοῖν ὑπάρχει. διὰ ταῦτα γὰρ τῆς φιλίας οὕσης διάλυσις γίνεται, ἐπειδὴν μὴ γίνηται ὦν ἕνεκα 10 ἐφίλουν· οὐ γὰρ αὐτοὺς ἕστεργον ἀλλὰ τῷ ὑπάρχοντα, οὐ μόνιμα ὄντα· διὸ τοιαῦται καὶ αἱ φιλίαι. ἡ δὲ τῶν ἡθῶν καθ' αὐτὴν οὕσα μένει, καθ-
 4 ἄπερ εἴρηται. διαφέρονται δ' ὅταν ἕτερα γίνηται αὐτοῖς καὶ μὴ ὦν ὀρέγονται· ὁμοιον γὰρ τῷ μηθὲν γίνεσθαι ὅταν οὐ ἐφίεται μὴ τυγχάνη, 15 οἷον καὶ τῷ κιθαρῳδῷ ὁ ἐπαγγελλλόμενος, καὶ ὅσω ἄμεινον ἄσειεν, τοσοῦτω πλείω· εἰς ἧς δ' ἀπαιτοῦντι τὰς ὑποσχέσεις ἀνθ' ἡδονῆς ἡδονὴν ἀποδεδωκέναι ἔφη. εἰ μὲν οὖν ἑκάτερος τοῦτο ἐβούλετο, ἱκανῶς ἂν εἶχεν· εἰ δ' ὁ μὲν τέρψιν ὁ δὲ κέρδος, καὶ ὁ μὲν ἔχει ὁ δὲ μή, οὐκ ἂν εἴη τὰ 20 κατὰ τὴν κοινωνίαν καλῶς· ὦν γὰρ δεόμενος τυγχάνει, τούτοις καὶ προσέχει, κακείνου γε
 5 χάριν ταῦτα³ δώσει. τὴν ἀξίαν δὲ ποτέρου τάξαι ἐστὶ, τοῦ προἰεμένου ἢ τοῦ προλαμβάνοντος⁴; ὁ γὰρ προἰεμένος ἔοικ' ἐπιτρέπειν ἐκείνῳ. ὅπερ φασὶ καὶ Πρωταγόραν ποιεῖν· ὅτε γὰρ διδάξειεν 25

¹ δ' K^b: δὲ καὶ.² ἐπαγγελλόμενος Coraes.³ ταῦτα: τὰ αὐτὰ Ob, τὰ αὐτοῦ Muretus.⁴ προλαμβάνοντος? Bywater: προλαβόντος.^a viii. iii. 7.

^b Plutarch, *De Alexandri fortuna*, ii. 1, tells the story of the tyrant Dionysius, who promised the musician a talent (there seems no particular point in the sliding scale of payment which Aristotle's version introduces), but next day told him that he had already been sufficiently paid by the pleasure of anticipation.

^c Lit. 'the one who receives first,' and now has to give a service in return.

pleasure is the motive of the friendship on the lover's side and profit on the side of the beloved, and when they no longer each possess the desired attribute. For in a friendship based on these motives, a rupture occurs as soon as the parties cease to obtain the things for the sake of which they were friends; seeing that neither loved the other in himself, but some attribute he possessed that was not permanent; so that these friendships are not permanent either. But friendship based on character is disinterested, and therefore lasting, as has been said.^a

4 Differences arise when the friends do not obtain what they desire, but something else; for not to get what you want is almost the same as not to get anything at all. For instance, there is the story of the man who hired a harper, and promised that the better he played the more he would pay him; but next morning, when the harper asked him to fulfil his promise, he said that he had already paid for the pleasure he had received by the pleasure he had given.^b This would have been all right if both had wanted pleasure; but when one wants amusement and the other gain, and one gets what he wants and the other does not, it would not be a fair bargain; for it is the thing that a man happens to need that he sets his heart on, and only to get that is he ready to give what he does.

5 Which party's business is it to decide the amount of the return due? Should it be assessed by the one who proffers the initial service? Or rather by the one who receives^c it, since the other by proffering it seems to leave the matter to him? This we are told was the practice of Protagoras; when he gave

ARISTOTLE

ἀδήποτε, τιμῆσαι τὸν μαθόντα ἐκέλευεν ὅσῳ
 δοκεῖ ἄξια ἐπίστασθαι, καὶ ἐλάμβανε τοσοῦτον.
 6 ἐν τοῖς τοιούτοις δ' ἐνίοις ἀρέσκει τὸ "μισθὸς
 δ' ἀνδρί." οἱ δὲ προλαμβάνοντες¹ τὸ ἀργύριον,
 εἶτα μηθὲν ποιῶντες ὧν ἔφασαν διὰ τὰς ὑπερ-
 βολὰς τῶν ἐπαγγελιῶν, εἰκότως ἐν ἐγκλήμασι 30
 γίνονται· οὐ γὰρ ἐπιτελοῦσιν ἃ ὠμολόγησαν.
 7 τοῦτο δ' ἴσως ποιεῖν οἱ σοφισταὶ ἀναγκάζονται
 διὰ τὸ μηθένα ἂν δοῦναι ἀργύριον ὧν ἐπίστανται.
 οὗτοι μὲν οὖν, ὧν ἔλαβον τὸν μισθὸν μὴ ποιῶντες,
 εἰκότως ἐν ἐγκλήμασιν εἰσιν. ἐν οἷς δὲ μὴ
 γίγνεται διομολογία τῆς ὑπουργίας, οἱ μὲν δι'
 αὐτοὺς προῖέμενοι εἴρηται ὅτι ἀνέγκλητοι (τοιαύτη 35
 γὰρ ἢ κατ' ἀρετὴν φιλία), τὴν ἀμοιβὴν τε ποιητέον 1164 b
 κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν (αὕτη γὰρ τοῦ φίλου καὶ
 τῆς ἀρετῆς)· οὕτω δ' ἔοικε καὶ τοῖς φιλοσοφίας
 κοινωνήσασιν· οὐ γὰρ πρὸς χρήμαθ' ἡ ἀξία
 μετρεῖται, τιμὴ τ' ἰσόρροπος οὐκ ἂν γένοιτο,
 ἀλλ' ἴσως ἱκανόν, καθάπερ καὶ πρὸς θεοὺς καὶ 5
 8 πρὸς γονεῖς, τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον. μὴ τοιαύτης δ'
 οὔσης τῆς δόσεως ἀλλ' ἐπὶ τινι, μάλιστα μὲν
 ἴσως δεῖ τὴν ἀνταπόδοσιν γίνεσθαι <τὴν>²
 δοκοῦσαν ἀμφοῖν κατ' ἀξίαν εἶναι, εἰ δὲ τοῦτο

¹ προλαμβάνοντες M^b.² Richards.

^a Hesiod, *Works and Days*, 370, μισθὸς δ' ἀνδρὶ φίλῳ εἰρη-
 μένος ἄρκιος ἔστω, 'let the wage stated to a friend stand good.'

^b i.e., after he has found out in the course of the lessons
 what that knowledge is.

^c Cf. VIII. xiii. 2.

lessons in any subject, he used to tell his pupil to estimate the value he set upon his knowledge, and
6 accepted a fee of that amount. In such matters however some people prefer the principle of 'the wage stated.'^a But people who take the money in advance, and then, having made extravagant professions, fail to perform what they undertook, naturally meet with complaints because they have
7 not fulfilled their bargain. Perhaps however the sophists are bound to demand their fees in advance, since nobody would pay money for the knowledge which they possess.^b Persons paid in advance then naturally meet with complaints if they do not perform the service for which they have taken the pay.

But in cases where no agreement is come to as to the value of the service, if it is proffered for the recipient's own sake, as has been said above,^c no complaint arises, for a friendship based on virtue does not give rise to quarrels; and the return made should be in proportion to the intention of the benefactor, since intention is the measure of a friend, and of virtue. This is the principle on which it would seem that payment ought to be made to those who have imparted instruction in philosophy; for the value of their service is not measurable in money, and no honour paid them could be an equivalent, but no doubt all that can be expected is that to them, as to the gods and to our parents, we should make such return as is in our power.

8 When on the other hand the gift is not disinterested but made with a view to a recompense, it is no doubt the best thing that a return should be made such as both parties concur in thinking the due amount. But failing such concurrence, it would

ARISTOTLE

μὴ συμβαίνοι, οὐ μόνον ἀναγκαῖον δόξειεν ἂν τὸν
 προέχοντα τάττειν, ἀλλὰ καὶ δίκαιον· ὅσον γὰρ ¹⁰
 οὗτος ὠφελήθη ἢ ἀνθ' ὅσου τὴν ἡδονὴν εἴλετ'
 ἂν, τοσοῦτον ἀντιλαβὼν ἔξει τὴν παρὰ τούτου
⁹ ἄξιαν· καὶ γὰρ ἐν τοῖς ὠνίοις οὕτω φαίνεται
 γινόμενον· ἐνιαχοῦ τ' εἰσὶ νόμοι τῶν ἐκρύσιων
 συμβολαίων δίκας μὴ εἶναι, ὥς δέον, ᾧ ἐπίστευσε,
 διαλυθῆναι πρὸς τοῦτον καθάπερ ἐκοινώνησεν. ¹⁵
 ᾧ γὰρ ἐπετράφθη, τοῦτον οἶεται δικαιότερον
 εἶναι τάξαι τοῦ ἐπιτρέψαντος.¹ τὰ πολλὰ γὰρ
 οὐ τοῦ ἴσου τιμῶσιν οἱ ἔχοντες καὶ οἱ βουλόμενοι
 λαβεῖν². τὰ γὰρ οἰκεία καὶ ἃ διδόασιν ἐκάστοις
 φαίνεται πολλοῦ ἄξια. ἀλλ' ὅμως ἡ ἀμοιβὴ
 γίνεται πρὸς τοσοῦτον ὅσον ἂν τάττωσιν οἱ ²⁰
 λαμβάνοντες.³ δεῖ δ' ἴσως οὐ τοσοῦτου τιμᾶν
 ὅσου ἔχοντι φαίνεται ἄξιον, ἀλλ' ὅσου πρὶν ἔχειν
 ἐτίμα.

- ii Ἀπορίαν δ' ἔχει καὶ τὰ τοιάδε, οἷον πότερα
 δεῖ πάντα τῷ πατρὶ ἀπονέμειν καὶ πείθεσθαι, ἢ
 κάμνοντα μὲν ἰατρῷ πιστευτέον,⁴ στρατηγὸν δὲ
 χειροτονητέον τὸν πολεμικόν· ὁμοίως δὲ φίλῳ ²⁵
 μᾶλλον ἢ σπουδαίῳ ὑπηρετητέον, καὶ εὐεργέτῃ
 ἀνταποδοτέον χάριν μᾶλλον ἢ ἐταίρῳ προετέον,⁵
² ἐὰν ἄμφω μὴ ἐνδέχεται. ἄρ' οὖν πάντα τὰ

¹ ᾧ γὰρ . . . ἐπιτρέψαντος secl. Ramsauer.

² τὰ πολλὰ γὰρ . . . λαβεῖν infra post ἐτίμα tr. Ramsauer.

³ τὰ γὰρ οἰκεία . . . λαμβάνοντες secl. Ramsauer.

⁴ πιστευτέον L^b, πιστεύειν K^b, πειστέον M^b.

⁵ προετέον K^b: δοτέον.

^a The price is fixed by what the buyer is willing to pay.

^b Cf. viii. xiii. 6. The phrase occurs in Plato, *Republic*, 556 A: cf. the 'voluntary private transactions' of v. ii. 13.

^c This sentence seems to come in better at the end of

seem to be not only inevitable but just that the amount of the return should be fixed by the party that received the initial service, since the donor will have recovered what the recipient really owes when he has been paid the value of the service to him, or the sum that he would have been willing to pay as the price of the pleasure. For in buying and selling also this seems to be the practice^a; and in some countries the law does not allow actions for the enforcement of voluntary covenants,^b on the ground that when you have trusted a man you ought to conclude the transaction as you began it. For it is thought fairer for the price to be fixed by the person who received credit than by the one who gave credit. ^c For as a rule those who have a thing value it differently from those who want to get it. For one's own possessions and gifts always seem to one worth a great deal; but nevertheless the repayment is actually determined by the valuation of the recipient. But he ought no doubt to estimate the gift not at what it seems to him to be worth now that he has received it, but at the value he put on it before he received it.

ii Other questions that may be raised are such as these: Does a man owe his father unlimited respect and obedience, or ought he when ill to take the advice of a physician, and when electing a general to vote for the best soldier? and similarly, ought he to do a service to a friend rather than to a virtuous man, and ought he to repay his obligation to a benefactor rather than make a present to a comrade, when he is not in a position to do both?

Second
Difficulty:
conflict of
claims of
different
friends.

the chapter. The sentences immediately preceding and following have been plausibly rejected as interpolations.

τοιαῦτα ἀκριβῶς μὲν διορίσαι οὐ ῥάδιον; πολλὰς
 γὰρ καὶ παντοίας ἔχει διαφορὰς καὶ μεγέθει καὶ
 3 μικρότητι καὶ τῷ καλῷ καὶ ἀναγκαίῳ. ὅτι δ' 30
 οὐ πάντα τῷ αὐτῷ ἀποδοτέον, οὐκ ἄδηλον. καὶ
 τὰς μὲν εὐεργεσίας ἀνταποδοτέον ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ
 πολὺ μᾶλλον ἢ χαριστέον ἐταίροις, ὥσπερ καὶ¹
 δάνειον ᾧ ὀφείλει ἀποδοτέον μᾶλλον ἢ ἐταίρῳ
 4 δοτέον. ἴσως δ' οὐδὲ τοῦτ' αἰεὶ, οἷον τῷ λυτρω-
 θέντι παρὰ ληστῶν πότερον τὸν λυσάμενον ἀντι- 35
 λυτρωτέον, κἂν ὁστισοῦν ἦ, ἢ καὶ μὴ ἐάλωκότι
 ἀπαιτοῦντι δὲ ἀποδοτέον, ἢ τὸν πατέρα λυτρωτέον; 1165
 δόξειε γὰρ ἂν καὶ ἑαυτοῦ μᾶλλον τὸν πατέρα.
 5 ὅπερ οὖν εἴρηται, καθόλου μὲν τὸ ὀφείλημα
 ἀποδοτέον, ἐὰν δ' ὑπερτείνῃ ἢ δόσις τῷ καλῷ
 ἢ τῷ ἀναγκαίῳ, πρὸς ταῦτ' ἀποκλιτέον. ἐνίστε 5
 γὰρ οὐδ' ἐστὶν ἴσον τὸ τὴν προὔπαρχὴν ἀμεΐψασθαι,
 ἐπειδὴν ὁ μὲν σπουδαῖον εἰδὼς εὖ ποιήσῃ, τῷ
 δὲ ἢ ἀνταπόδοσις γίγνηται, ὃν οἶεται μοχθηρὸν
 εἶναι. οὐδὲ γὰρ τῷ δανείσαντι ἐνίστε ἀντιδανει-
 στέον· ὁ μὲν γὰρ οἰόμενος κομιεῖσθαι ἐδάνεισεν
 ἐπιεικέϊ ὄντι, ὁ δ' οὐκ ἐλπίζει κομιεῖσθαι παρὰ 10
 πονηροῦ. εἴτε τοίνυν τῇ ἀληθείᾳ οὕτως ἔχει,
 οὐκ ἴσον τὸ ἀξίωμα· εἴτ' ἔχει μὲν μὴ οὕτως
 6 οἴονται² δέ, οὐκ ἂν δόξειεν³ ἄτοπα ποιεῖν. ὅπερ

¹ ὥσπερ καὶ Argyropylus: ὥσπερ K^b, καὶ ὥσπερ.

² οἶεται? ed.

³ δόξειεν M^b: δόξαιεν.

^a Perhaps the text should be emended to 'but B thinks he is.'

2 Now perhaps with all these matters it is not easy
 to lay down an exact rule, because the cases vary
 indefinitely in importance or unimportance, and in
 3 nobility or urgency. But it is quite clear that no
 one person is entitled to unlimited consideration.
 As a general rule one ought to return services
 rendered rather than do favours to one's companions,
 just as one ought to pay back a loan to a creditor
 4 rather than give the money to a friend. Yet perhaps
 even this rule is not without exceptions. For
 example, (*a*) suppose one has been ransomed from
 brigands; ought one to ransom one's ransomer in
 turn, whoever he may be—or even if he has not been
 captured himself but asks for his money back, ought
 one to repay him—or ought one to ransom one's own
 father? for it might be thought to be a man's duty
 5 to ransom his father even before himself. As a
 general rule then, as has been said, one ought to pay
 back a debt, but if the balance of nobility or urgency
 is on the side of employing the money for a gift,
 then one ought to decide in favour of the gift. For
 (*b*) there are occasions when it would be actually
 unfair to return the original service; as for instance
 when A has done B a service knowing him to be a
 good man, and B is called upon to return the service
 to A whom he believes to be a bad man. For even
 when A has lent B a loan, B is not always bound to
 lend A a loan in turn: A may have lent money to B,
 who is an honest man, expecting to get his money
 back, while B would have no hope of recovering from
 A, who is a rascal. If A is really a rascal, the return
 he asks for is not a fair one; and even if A is not a
 rascal, but people think ^a he is, it would not be
 thought unreasonable for B to refuse.

Two general
 rules: (i) no
 one has an
 absolute
 claim to
 preference.

ARISTOTLE

οὖν πολλάκις εἴρηται, οἱ περὶ τὰ πάθη καὶ τὰς
 πράξεις λόγοι ὁμοίως ἔχουσι τὸ ὠρισμένον τοῖς
 7 περὶ ᾧ εἰσιν.—ὅτι μὲν οὖν οὐ ταυτὰ πᾶσιν ἀπο-
 δοτέον, οὐδὲ τῷ πατρὶ πάντα, καθάπερ οὐδὲ τῷ ¹⁵
 Διὶ θύεται, οὐκ ἄδηλον· ἐπεὶ δ' ἕτερα γονεῦσι
 καὶ ἀδελφοῖς καὶ ἐταίροις καὶ εὐεργέταις, ἐκάστοις
 τὰ οἰκεῖα καὶ τὰ ἀρμόττοντα ἀπονεμητέον. οὕτω
 δὲ καὶ ποιεῖν φαίνονται· εἰς γάμους μὲν γὰρ
 καλοῦσι τοὺς συγγενεῖς, τούτοις γὰρ κοινὸν τὸ
 γένος καὶ αἱ περὶ τοῦτο δὴ πράξεις· καὶ εἰς τὰ ²⁰
 κήδη δὲ μάλιστ' οἴονται δεῖν τοὺς συγγενεῖς
 8 ἀπαντᾶν διὰ ταυτό. δόξαιε δ' ἂν τροφῆς μὲν
 γονεῦσι δεῖν μάλιστ' ἐπαρκεῖν, ὥς ὀφείλοντας,
 καὶ τοῖς αἰτίοις τοῦ εἶναι κάλλιον ὢν ἢ ἑαυτοῖς
 εἰς ταῦτ' ἐπαρκεῖν· καὶ τιμὴν δὲ γονεῦσι καθάπερ
 θεοῖς, οὐ πᾶσαν δέ· οὐδὲ γὰρ τὴν αὐτὴν πατρὶ ²⁵
 καὶ μητρὶ, οὐδ' αὖ τὴν τοῦ σοφοῦ ἢ τοῦ στρατηγοῦ,
 ἀλλὰ τὴν πατρικὴν, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὴν μητρικὴν.
 9 καὶ παντὶ δὲ τῷ πρεσβυτέρῳ τιμὴν τὴν¹ καθ'
 ἡλικίαν, ὑπαναστάσει καὶ κατακλίσει καὶ τοῖς
 τοιούτοις. πρὸς ἐταίρους δ' αὖ καὶ ἀδελφούς
 παρρησίαν καὶ ἀπάντων κοινότητα. καὶ συγγενέσι ³⁰
 δὲ καὶ φυλέταις καὶ πολίταις καὶ τοῖς λοιποῖς
 ἅπασιν αἰεὶ πειρατέον τὸ οἰκεῖον ἀπονέμειν, καὶ

¹ τὴν om. K^b.

^a See i. iii. 4, ii. ii. 3.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IX. ii. 6-9

- 6 Hence, as has been frequently remarked already,^a discussions about our emotions and actions only admit of such degree of definiteness as belongs to the matters with which they deal. ^
- 7 It is quite clear therefore that one's duty is not the same towards all people; while even a father's claim is not unlimited, any more than all sacrifices are offered to Zeus. Since the claims of parents and brothers, comrades and benefactors, are different, we ought to render to each that which is proper and suitable to each. This is in fact the principle on which men are observed to act. They invite their relatives to a wedding, because they are members of the family, and therefore concerned in the family's affairs; also it is thought to be specially incumbent on relations to attend funerals, for the same reason. ^{(h) Different relations have different claims.}
- 8 It would be felt that our parents have the first claim on us for maintenance, since we owe it to them as a debt, and to support the authors of our being stands before self-preservation in moral nobility. Honour also is due to parents, as it is to the gods, though not indiscriminate honour: one does not owe to one's father the same honour as to one's mother, nor yet the honour due to a great philosopher or general, but one owes to one's father the honour appropriate to a father, and to one's mother that appropriate to her.
- 9 Again, we should pay to all our seniors the honour due to their age, by rising when they enter, offering them a seat, and so on. Towards comrades and brothers on the other hand we should use frankness of speech, and share all our possessions with them. Kinsmen also, fellow-tribesmen, fellow-citizens, and the rest—to all we must always endeavour to render their due, comparing

ARISTOTLE

- συγκρίνειν τὰ ἐκάστοις ὑπάρχοντα κατ' οἰκειότητα
 10 καὶ ἀρετὴν ἢ χρῆσιν. τῶν μὲν οὖν ἑμογενῶν
 ῥάων ἢ σύγκρισις,¹ τῶν δὲ διαφερόντων ἔργω-
 δεστέρα. οὐ μὴν διὰ γε τοῦτο ἀποστατέον, ἀλλ' ³⁵
 ὥς ἂν ἐνδέχεται, οὕτω διοριστέον.
- iii Ἐχει δ' ἀπορίαν καὶ περὶ τοῦ διαλύεσθαι τὰς
 φιλίας ἢ μὴ πρὸς τοὺς μὴ διαμένοντας. ἢ πρὸς ^{1165 b}
 μὲν τοὺς διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ἢ τὸ ἡδὺ φίλους ὄντας,
 ὅταν μηκέτι ταῦτ' ἔχωσιν, οὐδὲν ἄτοπον δια-
 λύεσθαι; ἐκείνων γὰρ ἦσαν φίλοι. ὦν ἀπολιπόντων
 εὖλογον τὸ μὴ φιλεῖν. ἐγκαλέσειε δ' ἂν τις, εἰ ⁵
 διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ἢ τὸ ἡδὺ ἀγαπῶν προσεποιεῖτο
 διὰ τὸ ἡθος. ὁ γὰρ ἐν ἀρχῇ εἴπομεν, πλείσται
 διαφοραὶ γίνονται τοῖς φίλοις, ὅταν μὴ ὁμοίως
 2 οἴωνται καὶ ὧσι φίλοι. ὅταν μὲν οὖν διαψευσθῇ
 τις, καὶ ὑπολάβῃ φιλεῖσθαι διὰ τὸ ἡθος μὴθὲν
 τοιοῦτον ἐκείνου πράττοντος, ἑαυτὸν αἰτιῶντ' ἂν ¹⁰
 ὅταν δ' ὑπὸ τῆς ἐκείνου προσποιήσεως ἀπατηθῇ,
 δίκαιον ἐγκαλεῖν τῷ ἀπατήσαντι, καὶ μᾶλλον ἢ
 τοῖς τὸ νόμισμα κιβδηλεύουσιν, ὅσῳ περὶ τι-
 3 μιώτερον ἢ κακουργία. ἐὰν δ' ἀποδέξεται² ὥς
 ἀγαθόν, γένηται δὲ μοχθηρὸς <ἢ>³ καὶ δοκῇ,

¹ σύγκρισις Ruelle: κρίσις.

² ἀποδέξεται? Richards: ἀποδέχεται.

³ <ἢ> add. Ald.

^a Cf. VIII. xiii. 5.

^b At Athens the penalty for coining was death.

their several claims in respect of relationship and of
 10 virtue or utility. Between persons of the same
 kind discrimination is comparatively easy; but it
 is a harder matter when they are differently related
 to us. Nevertheless we must not shirk the task on
 that account, but must decide their claims as well
 as we are able.

iii Another question is, whether a friendship should
 or should not be broken off when the friends do not
 remain the same.

Third
 Difficulty :
 what justifies a dissolution of friendship?
 Answer :
 (1) In the inferior kinds of friendship, the cessation of the pleasure or utility derived from them.

It may be said that where the motive of the friendship is utility or pleasure, it is not unnatural that it should be broken off when our friends no longer possess the attribute of being useful or agreeable. It was those attributes that we loved, and when they have disappeared it is reasonable that love should cease. But a man might well complain, if, though we really liked him for the profit or pleasure he afforded, we had pretended to love him for his character. As was said at the outset,^a differences between friends most frequently arise when the nature of their friendship is not what they think it

2 is. When therefore a man has made a mistake, and has fancied that he was loved for his character, without there having been anything in his friend's behaviour to warrant the assumption, he has only himself to blame. But when he has been deceived by his friend's pretence, there is ground for complaint against the deceiver: in fact he is a worse malefactor than those who counterfeit the coinage,^b inasmuch as his offence touches something more precious than money.

Hypocritical friendships.

3 Again, supposing we have admitted a person to our friendship as a good man, and he becomes, or we

ARISTOTLE

ἄρ' ἔτι φιλητέον; ἢ οὐ δυνατόν, εἴπερ μὴ πᾶν
 φιλητὸν ἀλλὰ τάγαθόν, [οὔτε δὲ φιλητέον πονηρόν]¹ 15
 οὐδὲ² δεῖ; φιλοπύνηρον γὰρ οὐ χρή εἶναι, οὐδ'
 ὁμοιοῦσθαι φαύλῳ· εἴρηται δ' ὅτι τὸ ὅμοιον τῷ
 ὁμοίῳ φίλον. ἄρ' οὖν εὐθύς διαλυτέον; ἢ οὐ
 πᾶσιν, ἀλλὰ τοῖς ἀνιάτοις κατὰ τὴν μοχθηρίαν;
 ἐπανόρθωσιν δ' ἔχουσι μᾶλλον βοηθητέον εἰς τὸ
 ἥθος ἢ τὴν οὐσίαν, ὅσω βέλτιον καὶ τῆς φιλίας 20
 οἰκειότερον. δόξειε δ' ἂν ὁ διαλυόμενος οὐδὲν
 ἄτοπον ποιεῖν· οὐ γὰρ [τούτῳ] ἢ³ τοιούτῳ φίλος
 ἦν· ἀλλοιωθέντα οὖν ἀδυνατῶν ἀνασῶσαι ἀφίσταται.
 4 εἰ δ' ὁ μὲν διαμένοι ὁ δ' ἐπιεικέστερος γένοιτο
 καὶ πολὺ διαλλάττοι τῇ ἀρετῇ, ἄρα χρηστέον
 φίλῳ; ἢ οὐκ ἐνδέχεται; ἐν μεγάλῃ δὲ διαστάσει 25
 μάλιστα δῆλον γίνεται, οἷον ἐν ταῖς παιδικαῖς
 φιλίαις· εἰ γὰρ ὁ μὲν διαμένοι τὴν διάνοιαν παῖς
 ὁ δ' ἀνὴρ εἴη οἷος κράτιστος, πῶς ἂν εἶεν φίλοι
 μήτ' ἀρεσκόμενοι τοῖς αὐτοῖς μήτε χαίροντες
 καὶ λυπούμενοι; οὐδὲ γὰρ περὶ ἀλλήλους ταῦθ'
 ὑπάρξει αὐτοῖς, ἄνευ δὲ τούτων οὐκ ἦν φίλους 30
 εἶναι· συμβιοῦν γὰρ οὐχ οἷόν τε. εἴρηται δὲ περὶ
 5 τούτων. ἄρ' οὖν οὐθὲν ἀλλοιότερον πρὸς αὐτὸν

¹ [οὔτε . . . πονηρόν] om. Γ: φιλητὸν <τὸ> Stahr.

² οὐδὲ Ramsauer: οὔτε.

³ [τούτῳ] ἢ ed.: τούτῳ ἢ Par. 1417, τούτῳ ἢ K^b, τῷ vulg.

^a Cf. VIII. i. 6.

^b Cf. VIII. v. 3.

think he has become, a bad man : are we still bound to love him ? Perhaps it is impossible to do so, since only what is good is lovable ; and also wrong, for we ought not to be lovers of evil, nor let ourselves become like what is worthless ; and, as has been said above,^a like is the friend of like. Should we therefore break off the friendship at once ? Perhaps not in every case, but only when our friends have become incurably bad ; for it is even more incumbent on us to help them morally, so long as they are capable of reform, than to assist them financially, since character is a more valuable thing than wealth and has more to do with friendship. However, one could not be held to be doing anything unnatural if one broke off the friendship ; for one did not love the man for what he is now : he has altered, and if one cannot restore him, one gives him up.

(11) In friendships based on virtue, an extreme moral decline, or improvement, in one of the parties.

4 On the other hand, suppose one friend to have remained the same while the other has improved, and become greatly the superior in virtue : ought the latter to keep up the friendship ? Perhaps it is out of the question ; and this becomes especially clear when the gap between them is a wide one, as may happen with two people who were friends in boyhood. One may have remained a boy in mind, while the other is a man of the highest ability ; how can they be friends, when they have different tastes and different likes and dislikes ? They will no longer even enjoy each other's society ; but without this, intercourse and therefore friendship are, as we saw,^b impossible. But this has been discussed already.

5 Are we then to behave towards a former friend

ἐκτέον ἢ εἰ μὴ ἐγεγόνει φίλος μηδέποτε; ἢ δέῃ μνείαν ἔχειν τῆς γενομένης συνηθείας, καὶ καθάπερ φίλοις μᾶλλον ἢ ὀθνείοις οἰόμεθα δεῖν χαρίζεσθαι, οὕτω καὶ τοῖς γενομένοις ἀπονεμητέον τι διὰ τὴν³⁵ προγεγεννημένην φιλίαν, ὅταν μὴ δι' ὑπερβολὴν μοχθηρίας ἢ διάλυσιν γένηται.

- iv Τὰ φιλικὰ δὲ τὰ πρὸς τοὺς πέλας,¹ καὶ οἷς αἰ^{1166 a} φιλίας ὀρίζονται, ἔοικεν ἐκ τῶν πρὸς ἑαυτὸν ἐληλυθέναι. τιθέασι γὰρ φίλον τὸν βουλόμενον καὶ πράττοντα τὰγαθὰ ἢ τὰ φαινόμενα ἐκείνου ἔνεκα· ἢ τὸν βουλόμενον εἶναι καὶ ζῆν τὸν φίλον⁵ αὐτοῦ χάριν, ὅπερ αἰ μητέρες πρὸς τὰ τέκνα πεπόνθασι, καὶ τῶν φίλων οἱ προσκεκρουκότες². οἱ δὲ τὸν συνδιάγοντα καὶ ταῦτα αἰρούμενον· ἢ τὸν συναλγοῦντα καὶ συγχαίροντα τῷ φίλῳ, μάλιστα δὲ καὶ τοῦτο περὶ τὰς μητέρας συμβαίνει.
- 2 τούτων δέ τινι καὶ τὴν φιλίαν ὀρίζονται. πρὸς 10 ἑαυτὸν δὲ τούτων ἕκαστον τῷ ἐπιεικεῖ ὑπάρχει (τοῖς δὲ λοιποῖς, ἢ τοιοῦτοι ὑπολαμβάνουσιν εἶναι· ἔοικε δέ,³ καθάπερ εἴρηται, μέτρον ἐκάστου⁴ ἢ
- 3 ἀρετὴ καὶ ὁ σπουδαῖος εἶναι). οὗτος γὰρ ὁμογνωμονεῖ ἑαυτῷ καὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ὀρέγεται κατὰ πᾶσαν τὴν ψυχὴν. καὶ βούλεται δέ⁵ ἑαυτῷ τὰγαθὰ¹⁵ καὶ τὰ φαινόμενα καὶ πράττει (τοῦ γὰρ ἀγαθοῦ

¹ πέλας Bywater: φίλους πέλας K^b, φίλους.

² καὶ τῶν . . . προσκεκρουκότες secl. Ramsauer, <καὶ> οἱ προσκ. ? Susemihl.

³ δέ: γάρ L^b.

⁴ ἐκάστου ed.: ἐκάστων K^b, -τω vulg. ⁵ δὲ Ramsauer: δῆ.

^a i.e., have had a difference which keeps them from meeting, but still leaves them well disposed to each other.

^b These five notes of friendship are taken seriatim in §§ 2-5, and again in §§ 8, 9, but in both cases the fourth is dealt with first.

in exactly the same way as if he had never been our friend at all? Perhaps we ought to remember our past intimacy, and just as we think it right to show more kindness to friends than to strangers, so likewise some attention should be paid, for the sake of old times, to those who were our friends in the past, that is, if the rupture was not caused by extreme wickedness on their part.

The forms which friendly feeling for our neighbours takes, and the marks by which the different forms of friendship are defined, seem to be derived from the feelings of regard which we entertain for ourselves. A friend is defined as (*a*) one who wishes, and promotes by action, the real or apparent good of another for that other's sake; or (*b*) one who desires the existence and preservation of his friend for the friend's sake. (This is the feeling of mothers towards their children, and of former friends who have quarrelled.^a) Others say that a friend is (*c*) one who frequents another's society, and (*d*) who desires the same things as he does, or (*e*) one who shares his friend's joys and sorrows. (This too is very characteristic of mothers.) Friendship also is defined by one or other of these marks.^b But each of them is also found in a good man's feelings towards himself (and in those of all other men as well, in so far as they believe themselves to be good; but, as has been said, virtue and the virtuous man seem to be the standard in everything). For (*d*) the good man is of one mind with himself, and desires the same things with every part of his nature. Also (*a*) he wishes his own good, real as well as apparent, and seeks it by action (for it is a mark of a good man to exert himself actively for the good);

III. (Appendix to I.)
Friendship distinguished from kindred qualities :
cc. iv-vi.
(1) Self-love, the type and basis of love for others.

ARISTOTLE

τὰγαθὸν διαπονεῖν), καὶ ἑαυτοῦ ἔνεκα (τοῦ γὰρ
 διανοητικοῦ χάριν, ὅπερ ἕκαστος εἶναι δοκεῖ).
 καὶ ζῆν δὲ βούλεται ἑαυτὸν καὶ σώζεσθαι, καὶ
 4 μάλιστα τοῦτο ᾧ φρονεῖ. ἀγαθὸν γὰρ τῷ σπουδαίῳ
 τὸ εἶναι· ἕκαστος δ' ἑαυτῷ βούλεται τὰγαθὰ, 20
 γενόμενος δ' ἄλλος οὐδεὶς αἰρεῖται πάντ' ἔχειν
 [ἐκείνο τὸ γενόμενον]¹ (ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς
 τὰγαθόν), ἀλλ' ὣν ὃ τι ποτ' ἐστίν·² δόξειε δ' ἂν
 5 τὸ νοοῦν ἕκαστος εἶναι, ἢ μάλιστα. συνδιάγειν
 τε ὁ τοιοῦτος ἑαυτῷ βούλεται· ἡδέως γὰρ αὐτὸ
 ποιεῖ· τῶν τε γὰρ πεπραγμένων ἐπιτερπεῖς αἱ 25
 μνήμαι, καὶ τῶν μελλόντων <αἱ>³ ἐλπίδες ἀγαθαί,
 αἱ τοιαῦται δ' ἡδεῖαι· καὶ θεωρημάτων δ' εὐπορεῖ
 τῇ διανοίᾳ. συναλγεί τε καὶ συνῆδεται μάλισθ'
 ἑαυτῷ· πάντοτε γὰρ ἐστὶ τὸ αὐτὸ λυπηρόν τε καὶ
 ἡδύ, καὶ οὐκ ἄλλοτ' ἄλλο· ἀμεταμέλητος γὰρ ὡς
 εἰπεῖν. τῷ δὲ πρὸς αὐτὸν ἕκαστα τούτων ὑπ- 30
 ἀρχειν τῷ ἐπιεικεῖ, πρὸς δὲ τὸν φίλον ἔχειν ὥσπερ
 πρὸς ἑαυτόν (ἐστὶ γὰρ ὁ φίλος ἄλλος αὐτός), καὶ
 ἢ φιλία τούτων εἶναι τι δοκεῖ, καὶ φίλοι οἷς ταῦθ'
 6 ὑπάρχει.—πρὸς αὐτὸν δὲ πότερόν ἐστιν ἢ οὐκ
 ἐστὶ φιλία, ἀφείσθω ἐπὶ τοῦ παρόντος· δόξειε
 δ' ἂν ταύτῃ εἶναι φιλία, ἣ ἐστὶ δύο ἢ πλείω [ἐκ 35

¹ Vermehren.² ἕκαστος . . . ἐστίν secl. Ramsauer.³ ed.

^a The following words, down to 'whatever that may be,' should perhaps be rejected as interpolated.

^b The mss. give 'in so far as two or more of the characteristics specified are present,' which hardly gives a sense.

and he does^a so for his own sake (for he does it on account of the intellectual part of himself, and this appears to be a man's real self). Also (b) he desires his own life and security, and especially that of his
4 rational part. For existence is good for the virtuous man; ^a and everyone wishes his own good: no one would choose to possess every good in the world on condition of becoming somebody else (for God possesses the good even as it is), but only while remaining himself, whatever he may be; and it would appear that the intellect is the real self, or is
5 the chief part of it. And (c) the good man desires his own company; for he enjoys being by himself, since he has agreeable memories of the past, and good hopes for the future, which are pleasant too; also his mind is stored with subjects for contemplation. And (e) he is keenly conscious of his own joys and sorrows; for the same things give him pleasure or pain at all times, and not different things at different times, since he is not apt to change his mind.

It is therefore because the good man has these various feelings towards himself, and because he feels towards his friend in the same way as towards himself (for a friend is another self), that friendship also is thought to consist in one or other of these feelings, and the possession of them is thought to be the test of a friend.

6 Whether a man can be said actually to feel friendship for himself is a question that may be dismissed for the present; though it may be held that he can do so in so far^b as he is a dual or composite being,

The words 'though it may be held . . . self-regard,' have been suspected as an interpolation.

ARISTOTLE

τῶν εἰρημένων],¹ καὶ ὅτι ἡ ὑπερβολή⁴ τῆς φιλίας 1166 b
 7 τῇ πρὸς αὐτὸν ὁμοιοῦται.² φαίνεται δὲ τὰ εἰρημένα
 καὶ τοῖς πολλοῖς ὑπάρχειν, καίπερ οὔσι φαύλοις.
 ἄρ' οὖν ἡ ἀρέσκουσιν ἑαυτοῖς καὶ ὑπολαμβάνουσιν
 ἐπικεῖς εἶναι, ταύτῃ μετέχουσιν αὐτῶν; ἐπεὶ 5
 τῶν γε κομιδῇ φαύλων καὶ ἀνοσιουργῶν οὐθενὶ
 8 ταῦθ' ὑπάρχει, ἀλλ' οὐδὲ φαίνεται. σχεδὸν δὲ
 οὐδὲ τοῖς φαύλοις· διαφέρονται γὰρ ἑαυτοῖς,
 καὶ ἐτέρων μὲν ἐπιθυμοῦσιν ἄλλα δὲ βούλονται,
 οἷον οἱ ἀκρατεῖς· αἰροῦνται γὰρ ἀντὶ τῶν δοκούντων
 ἑαυτοῖς ἀγαθῶν εἶναι τὰ ἡδέα βλαβερά ὄντα· οἱ 10
 δ' αὖ διὰ δειλίαν καὶ ἀργίαν ἀφίστανται τοῦ
 πράττειν ἃ οἷονται ἑαυτοῖς βέλτιστα εἶναι· οἷς
 δὲ πολλὰ καὶ δεινὰ πέπρακται καὶ³ διὰ τὴν
 μοχθηρίαν μισοῦνται,⁴ καὶ φεύγουσι τὸ ζῆν καὶ
 9 ἀναιροῦσιν ἑαυτούς. ζητοῦσί τε οἱ μοχθηροὶ μεθ'
 ὧν συνδιημερεύουσιν, ἑαυτούς δὲ φεύγουσιν·
 ἀναμιμνήσκονται γὰρ πολλῶν καὶ δυσχερῶν καὶ 15
 τοιαῦθ' ἕτερα ἐλπίζουσι καθ' ἑαυτούς ὄντες, μεθ'
 ἐτέρων δ' ὄντες ἐπιλανθάνονται. οὐθέν τε φιλητὸν
 ἔχοντες οὐθέν φιλικὸν πάσχουσι πρὸς ἑαυτούς.
 οὐδὲ δὴ συγκαίρουσιν οὐδὲ συναλγοῦσιν οἱ τοιοῦτοι
 ἑαυτοῖς· στασιάζει γὰρ αὐτῶν ἡ ψυχὴ, καὶ τὸ μὲν 20
 διὰ μοχθηρίαν ἀλγεῖ ἀπεχόμενον τινῶν, τὸ δ'
 ἡδεταί, καὶ τὸ μὲν δεῦρο τὸ δ' ἐκείσε ἔλκει
 10 ὥσπερ διασπῶντα. εἰ δὲ μὴ οἷόν τε ἅμα λυ-

¹ Bywater.³ καὶ om. L^b.² δόξειε . . . ὁμοιοῦται secl. Ramsauer.⁴ μισοῦνται : μισοῦσί τε L^b.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IX. iv. 6-10

and because very intense friendship resembles self-regard.

- 7 As a matter of fact, the feelings of self-regard described appear to be found in most people, even though they are of inferior moral worth. Perhaps men share them in so far as they have their own approval and believe in their own virtue; since the utterly worthless and criminal never possess them, or even
- 8 have the appearance of doing so. Indeed it may almost be said that no morally inferior persons possess them. For (*d*) such persons are at variance with themselves, desiring one thing and willing another: this is the mark of the unrestrained, who choose what is pleasant but harmful instead of what they themselves think to be good. (*a*) Others again, out of cowardice and idleness, neglect to do what they think best for their own interests. And (*b*) men who have committed a number of crimes, and are hated for their wickedness, actually flee
- 9 from life and make away with themselves. Also (*c*) bad men constantly seek the society of others and shun their own company, because when they are by themselves they recall much that was unpleasant in the past and anticipate the same in the future, whereas with other people they can forget. Moreover they feel no affection for themselves, because they have no lovable qualities. Hence (*e*) such men do not enter into their own joys and sorrows, as there is civil war in their souls; owing to their depravity, one part of their nature is pained by abstinence from certain indulgences while another part is pleased by it; one part drags them one way and another the other, like a puppet pulled by
- 10 strings. Or if it be impossible to feel pain and

True Self-esteem impossible for the base.

ARISTOTLE

πεῖσθαι καὶ ἡδεσθαι, ἀλλὰ μετὰ μικρόν γε λυ-
 πείται ὅτι ἦσθη, καὶ οὐκ ἂν ἐβούλετο ἡδέα ταῦτα
 γενέσθαι αὐτῷ· μεταμελείας γὰρ οἱ φαῦλοι γέ- 25
 μουσιν. οὐ δὴ φαίνεται ὁ φαῦλος οὐδὲ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν
 φιλικῶς διακεῖσθαι διὰ τὸ μηδὲν ἔχειν φιλητόν.
 εἰ δὴ τὸ οὕτως ἔχειν λίαν ἐστὶν ἄθλιον, φευκτέον
 τὴν μοχθηρίαν διατεταμένως καὶ πειρατέον ἐπιεικῇ
 εἶναι· οὕτω γὰρ καὶ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν φιλικῶς ἂν
 ἔχοι καὶ ἑτέρῳ φίλος γένοιτο.

- ▼ 'Η δ' εὐνοια φιλικῶ¹ μὲν ἔοικεν, οὐ μὴν ἐστὶ γε 30
 φιλία· γίνεται γὰρ εὐνοια καὶ πρὸς ἀγνώτας καὶ
 λανθάνουσα, φιλία δ' οὐ. καὶ πρότερον δὲ ταῦτ'
 εἴρηται. ἀλλ' οὐδὲ φίλησις ἐστίν· οὐ γὰρ ἔχει
 διάτασιν οὐδ' ὄρεξιν, τῇ φιλήσει δὲ ταῦτ' ἀκολουθεῖ.
 2 καὶ ἡ μὲν φίλησις μετὰ συνηθείας, ἡ δ' εὐνοια 35
 καὶ ἐκ προσπαίου, οἷον καὶ περὶ τοὺς ἀγωνιστὰς
 συμβαίνει· εὐνοίαι γὰρ αὐτοῖς γίνονται καὶ συν- 1167 a
 θέλουσιν, συμπράξαιεν δ' ἂν οὐθέν· ὅπερ γὰρ
 εἵπομεν, προσπαίως εὐνοίαι γίνονται καὶ ἐπιπολαίως
 3 στέργουσιν. ἔοικε δὴ ἀρχὴ φιλίας εἶναι, ὥσπερ
 τοῦ ἐρᾶν ἡ διὰ τῆς ὀψεως ἡδονή· μὴ γὰρ προησθεις 5
 τῇ ιδέα οὐθεὶς ἐρᾷ, ὁ δὲ χαίρων τῷ εἶδει οὐθέν
 μᾶλλον ἐρᾷ, ἀλλ' ὅταν καὶ ἀπόντα ποθῇ καὶ τῆς
 παρουσίας ἐπιθυμῇ. οὕτω δὴ καὶ φίλους οὐχ

¹ φιλικῶ K^b: φιλίᾳ.

^a See VIII. ii. 3.

pleasure at the same time, at all events after indulging in pleasure they regret it a little later, and wish they had never acquired a taste for such indulgences ; since the bad are always changing their minds.

Thus a bad man appears to be devoid even of affection for himself, because he has nothing lovable in his nature. If then such a state of mind is utterly miserable, we should do our utmost to shun wickedness and try to be virtuous. That is the way both to be friends with ourselves and to win the friendship of others.

- ✓ Goodwill appears to be an element of friendly feeling, but it is not the same thing as friendship ; for it can be felt towards strangers, and it can be unknown to its object, whereas friendship cannot. But that has been discussed already.^a

(11) Goodwill, the germ of true Friendship.

- Neither is goodwill the same as affection. For it has no intensity, nor does it include desire, but these things are necessarily involved in affection.
- 2 Also affection requires intimate acquaintance, whereas goodwill may spring up all of a sudden, as does for instance the goodwill felt for the competitors in a contest ; the spectators take sides, and favour one man or the other, though they would not actively assist them, for as we said, their goodwill is a sudden growth, and the kindly feeling is only superficial.

- 3 Goodwill seems therefore to be the beginning of friendship, just as the pleasure of the eye is the beginning of love. No one falls in love without first being charmed by beauty, but one may delight in another's beauty without necessarily being in love : one is in love only if one longs for the beloved when absent, and eagerly desires his presence. Similarly

- οἷόν τ' εἶναι μὴ εὖνους γενομένους, οἱ δ' εὖνοι οὐθὲν μᾶλλον φιλοῦσιν· βούλονται γὰρ μόνον τὰγαθὰ οἷς εἰσὶν εὖνοι, συμπράξαιεν δ' ἂν οὐθέν, 10 οὐδ' ὀχληθεῖεν ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν. διὸ μεταφέρων φαίη τις ἂν αὐτὴν ἀργὴν εἶναι φιλίαν, χρονιζομένην δὲ καὶ εἰς συνήθειαν ἀφικνουμένην γίνεσθαι φιλίαν, οὐ τὴν διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον οὐδὲ τὴν διὰ τὸ ἡδύ· οὐδὲ γὰρ εὖνοια ἐπὶ τούτοις γίνεται. ὁ μὲν γὰρ εὐεργετηθεὶς ἀνθ' ὧν πέπονθεν ἀπονέμει 15 τὴν εὖνοιαν τὰ δίκαια δρῶν· ὁ δὲ βουλόμενός τιν' εὐπραγεῖν ἐλπίδα ἔχων εὐπορίας δι' ἐκείνου, οὐκ ἔοικ' εὖνους ἐκείνῳ εἶναι, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον ἑαυτῷ· καθάπερ οὐδὲ φίλος εἰ θεραπεύει αὐτὸν 4 διὰ τινὰ χρῆσιν. ὅλως δ' εὖνοια δι' ἀρετὴν καὶ ἐπιείκειάν τινα γίνεται, ὅταν τῷ φανῇ καλὸς τις 20 ἢ ἀνδρεῖος ἢ τι τοιοῦτον, καθάπερ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀγωνιστῶν εἴπομεν.
- vi Φιλικὸν δὲ καὶ ἡ ὁμόνοια φαίνεται· διόπερ οὐκ ἔστιν ὁμοδοξία· τοῦτο μὲν γὰρ καὶ ἀγνοοῦσιν ἀλλήλους ὑπάρξειεν ἄν. οὐδὲ τοὺς περὶ ὁτουοῦν ὁμογνωμονοῦντας ὁμονοεῖν φασίν, οἷον τοὺς περὶ 25 τῶν οὐρανίων (οὐ γὰρ φιλικὸν τὸ περὶ τούτων ὁμονοεῖν¹)· ἀλλὰ τὰς πόλεις ὁμονοεῖν φασίν, ὅταν περὶ τῶν συμφερόντων ὁμογνωμονῶσι καὶ ταῦτὰ προαιρῶνται καὶ πράττωσι τὰ κοινῇ δόξαντα. 2 περὶ τὰ πρακτὰ δὴ ὁμονοοῦσιν, καὶ τούτων περὶ

¹ ὁμογνωμονεῖν ? ed.

men cannot be friends without having conceived mutual goodwill, though well-wishers are not necessarily friends: they merely desire the good of those whose well-wishers they are, and would not actively assist them to attain it, nor be put to any trouble on their behalf. Hence we may apply the name friendship to goodwill in a metaphorical sense—we may call it friendship lying fallow; and we may say that when it continues, and reaches the point of intimacy, it becomes friendship, and friendship in the true sense, not the sort of friendship whose motive is utility or pleasure, for these do not arouse goodwill. Goodwill rendered in return for favours received is merely the payment of a due; nor does that desire for another's welfare which springs from the anticipation of favours to come appear really to show goodwill for one's benefactor, but rather for oneself; just as to court a man for
 4 some interested motive is not friendship. Speaking generally, true goodwill is aroused by some kind of excellence or moral goodness: it springs up when one person thinks another beautiful or brave or the like, as in the case we mentioned of competitors in a contest.

vi Concord also seems to be a friendly feeling. Hence ^{(iii) Con-} it is not merely agreement of opinion, for this might ^{cord.} exist even between strangers. Nor yet is agreement in reasoned judgements about any subject whatever, for instance astronomy, termed concord; to agree about the facts of astronomy is not a bond of friendship. Concord is said to prevail in a state, when the citizens agree as to their interests, adopt the same policy, and carry their common resolves
 2 into execution. Concord then refers to practical

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τὰ ἐν μεγέθει καὶ τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἀμφοῖν ὑπάρχειν ³⁰
 ἢ πᾶσιν· οἷον αἱ πόλεις, ὅταν πᾶσι δοκῇ τὰς
 ἀρχὰς αἰρετὰς εἶναι, ἢ συμμαχεῖν Λακεδαιμονίοις,
 ἢ ἄρχειν Πιττακόν (ὅτε καὶ αὐτὸς ἤθελεν). ὅταν
 δ' ἐκάτερος ἑαυτὸν βούληται, ὥσπερ οἱ ἐν ταῖς
 Φοινίσσαις, στασιάζουσιν· οὐ γὰρ ἔσθ' ὁμονοεῖν
 τὸ <τὸ>¹ αὐτὸ ἐκάτερον ἐννοεῖν ὁδῆποτε, ἀλλὰ ³⁵
 τὸ ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ, οἷον ὅταν καὶ ὁ δῆμος καὶ οἱ ^{1167 b}
 ἐπιεικεῖς τοὺς ἀρίστους ἄρχειν· οὕτω γὰρ πᾶσι
 γίγνεται οὐ ἐφίενται. πολιτικὴ δὴ² φιλία φαίνεται
 ἢ ὁμόνοια, καθάπερ καὶ λέγεται· περὶ τὰ συμ-
 φέροντα γὰρ ἔστι καὶ τὰ εἰς τὸν βίον ἀνήκοντα.
³ ἔστι δ' ἡ τοιαύτη ὁμόνοια ἐν τοῖς ἐπιεικέσιν· ⁵
 οὗτοι γὰρ καὶ ἑαυτοῖς ὁμονοοῦσι καὶ ἀλλήλοις,
 ἐπὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ὄντες ὥς εἰπεῖν· τῶν τοιούτων
 γὰρ μένει τὰ βουλήματα καὶ οὐ μεταρρεῖ ὥσπερ
 εὐριπος, βούλονται τε τὰ δίκαια καὶ τὰ συμφέροντα,
⁴ τούτων δὲ καὶ κοινῇ ἐφίενται. τοὺς δὲ φαύλους ¹⁰
 οὐχ οἷόν τε ὁμονοεῖν πλὴν ἐπὶ μικρόν, καθάπερ
 καὶ φίλους εἶναι, πλεονεξίας ἐφιεμένους ἐν τοῖς
 ὠφελίμοις, ἐν δὲ τοῖς πόνοις καὶ ταῖς λειτουργίαις
 ἐλλείποντας· ἑαυτῷ δ' ἕκαστος βουλόμενος ταῦτα
 τὸν πέλας ἐξετάζει καὶ κωλύει· μὴ γὰρ τηρούντων

¹ Richards.² δὴ Ramsauer: δὲ.

^a Pittacus was elected dictator of Mitylene early in the sixth century B.C.; he ruled for fourteen years, and then laid down his office. All the citizens wished him to continue, but this was not strictly unanimity or Concord, since there was one dissident, Pittacus himself.

^b Eteocles and Polyneices.^c Euripides, *Phoen.* 588 ff.

ends, and practical ends of importance, and capable of being realized by both of the two persons, or by all the group of persons, concerned : for instance, there is concord in the state when the citizens unanimously decree that the offices of state shall be elective, or that an alliance shall be made with Sparta^a, or that Pittacus shall be dictator (when Pittacus was himself willing to be dictator ^a). When each of two persons wishes himself to rule, like the rivals ^b in the *Phoenissae*,^c there is discord ; since men are not of one mind merely when each thinks the same thing (whatever this may be), but when each thinks the same thing in relation to the same person : for instance, when both the common people and the upper classes wish that the best people shall rule ; for only so can all parties get what they desire.

Concord appears therefore to mean friendship between citizens, which indeed is the ordinary use of the term ; for it refers to the interests and business of life.

- 3 Now concord in this sense exists between good men, since these are of one mind both with themselves and with one another, as they always stand more or less on the same ground ; for good men's wishes are steadfast, and do not ebb and flow like the tide, and they wish for just and expedient ends, which they strive to attain in common. The base
4 on the other hand are incapable of concord, except in some small degree, as they are of friendship, since they try to get more than their share of advantages, and take less than their share of labours and public burdens. And while each desires this for himself, he spies on his neighbour to prevent him from doing likewise ; for unless they keep watch over one

τὸ κοινὸν ἀπόλλυται. συμβαίνει οὖν αὐτοῖς στασιά-
ζειν, ἀλλήλους μὲν ἐπαναγκάζοντας, αὐτοὺς δὲ 15
μὴ βουλομένους τὰ δίκαια ποιεῖν.

- vii Οἱ δ' εὐεργέται τοὺς εὐεργετηθέντας δοκοῦσι
μᾶλλον φιλεῖν ἢ οἱ εὖ παθόντες τοὺς δράσαντας,
καὶ ὥς παρὰ λόγον γινόμενον ἐπιζητεῖται, τοῖς
μὲν οὖν πλείστοις φαίνεται,¹ ὅτι οἱ μὲν ὀφείλουσι 20
τοῖς δὲ ὀφείλεται· καθάπερ οὖν ἐπὶ τῶν δανείων
οἱ μὲν ὀφείλοντες βούλονται μὴ εἶναι οἷς ὀφείλουσιν,
οἱ δὲ δανείσαντες καὶ ἐπιμέλονται τῆς τῶν ὀφει-
λόντων σωτηρίας, οὕτω καὶ τοὺς εὐεργετήσαντας
βούλεσθαι εἶναι τοὺς παθόντας ὥς κομιουμένους
τὰς χάριτας, τοῖς δ' οὐκ εἶναι ἐπιμελὲς τὸ ἀντ- 25
αποδοῦναι. Ἐπίχαρμος μὲν οὖν τάχ' ἂν φαίη
ταῦτα λέγειν αὐτοὺς ἐκ πονηροῦ θεωμένους·
ἔοικε δ' ἀνθρωπικῶ, ἀμνήμονες γὰρ οἱ πολλοί,
2 καὶ μᾶλλον εὖ πάσχειν ἢ ποιεῖν ἐφίενται. δόξειε
δ' ἂν φυσικώτερον εἶναι τὸ αἷτιον, καὶ οὐδ' ὅμοιον
τὸ² περὶ τοὺς δανείσαντας· οὐ γάρ ἐστι φίλησις 30
περὶ ἐκείνους, ἀλλὰ τοῦ σώζεσθαι βούλησις τῆς
κομιδῆς ἕνεκα· οἱ δ' εὖ πεποιηκότες φιλοῦσι
καὶ ἀγαπῶσι τοὺς εὖ³ πεπονθότας, καὶ μὴ μὲν
3 ὥς χρησιμοὶ μὴδ' εἰς ὕστερον γένοιντ' ἂν. ὅπερ
καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν τεχνιτῶν συμβέβηκεν· πᾶς γὰρ τὸ
οἰκεῖον ἔργον ἀγαπᾷ μᾶλλον ἢ ἀγαπηθείη ἂν 35
ὑπὸ τοῦ ἔργου ἐμφύχου γενομένου. μάλιστα δ' 1168 a

¹ φαίνεται <αἷτιον>? Richards.

² τὸ Bywater: τῷ.

³ εὖ add. Γ.

^a This half-line of verse (Epicharnius doubtless wrote θαμένους) is otherwise unknown.

^b Cf. vii. iii. 9.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IX. vi. 4—vii. 3

another, the common interests go to ruin. The result is discord, everybody trying to make others do their duty but refusing to do it themselves.

- vii Benefactors seem to love those whom they benefit more than those who have received benefits love those who have conferred them; and it is asked why this is so, as it seems to be unreasonable. The view most generally taken is that it is because the one party is in the position of a debtor and the other of a creditor; just as therefore in the case of a loan, whereas the borrower would be glad to have his creditor out of the way, the lender is anxious for his debtor's preservation, so it is thought that the conferrer of a benefit wishes the recipient to live in order that he may receive a return, but the recipient is not particularly anxious to make a return. Epicharmus no doubt would say that people who give this explanation are 'looking at the seamy side' of life; but all the same it appears to be not untrue to human nature, for most men have short memories, and are more desirous of receiving benefits than of bestowing them.

IV. Five further difficulties solved (cc vii-xi) (i.) Why does the benefactor love the beneficiary more than the latter loves the former?

- 2 But it might be held that the real reason lies deeper,^b and that the case of the creditor is not really a parallel. With him it is not a matter of affection, but only of wishing his debtor's preservation for the sake of recovering his money; whereas a benefactor feels friendship and affection for the recipient of his bounty even though he is not getting anything out of him and is never likely to do so.

Not solely on selfish grounds.

- 3 The same thing happens with the artist: every artist loves his own handiwork more than that handiwork if it were to come to life, would love him. This

(a) We love what we have created.

ARISTOTLE

ἴσως τοῦτο περὶ τοὺς ποιητὰς συμβαίνει· ὑπερ-
 αγαπῶσι γὰρ οὗτοι τὰ οἰκεῖα ποιήματα, σπέργοντες
 4 ὥσπερ τέκνα. τοιοῦτῳ δὴ ἔοικε καὶ τὸ τῶν
 εὐεργετῶν· τὸ γὰρ εὖ πεπονθὸς ἔργον ἐστὶν αὐτῶν·
 τοῦτο δὴ ἀγαπῶσι μᾶλλον ἢ τὸ ἔργον τὸν ποιή- 5
 σαντα. τούτου δ' αἴτιον ὅτι τὸ εἶναι * πᾶσιν
 αἰρετὸν καὶ φιλητόν, ἐσμέν δ' ἐνεργεῖα (τῷ ζῆν
 γὰρ καὶ πράττειν), ἐνεργεῖα δὲ¹ ὁ ποιήσας τὸ
 ἔργον ἔστι πῶς· στέργει δὴ τὸ ἔργον, διότι καὶ
 τὸ εἶναι. τοῦτο δὲ φησικόν· ὁ γὰρ ἐστὶ δυνάμει,
 5 τοῦτο ἐνεργεῖα τὸ ἔργον μηνύει.—ἀμα δὲ καὶ τῷ 10
 μὲν εὐεργέτῃ καλὸν τὸ κατὰ τὴν πράξιν, ὥστε
 χαίρειν ἐν ᾧ τοῦτο, τῷ δὲ παθόντι οὐθὲν καλὸν
 ἐν τῷ δράσαντι, ἀλλ' εἴπερ, συμφέρον· τοῦτο δ'
 6 ἦττον ἢδὺ καὶ φιλητόν. ἡδεῖα δ' ἐστὶ τοῦ μὲν
 παρόντος ἢ ἐνέργεια, τοῦ δὲ μέλλοντος ἢ ἐλπίς,
 τοῦ δὲ γεγεννημένου ἢ μνήμη· ἡδιστον δὲ τὸ
 κατὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν, καὶ φιλητόν ὁμοίως.² τῷ 15
 μὲν οὖν πεποιηκότι μένει τὸ ἔργον (τὸ καλὸν γὰρ
 πολυχρόνιον), τῷ δὲ παθόντι τὸ χρήσιμον παρ-
 οίχεται.* ἢ τε μνήμη τῶν μὲν καλῶν ἡδεῖα, τῶν
 δὲ χρησίμων οὐ πάνυ ἢ ἦττον· ἢ προσδοκία δ'
 ἀνάπαλιν ἔχειν ἔοικεν.—καὶ ἢ μὲν φίλησις ποιήσει
 ἔοικεν, τὸ φιλεῖσθαι δὲ τῷ πάσχειν. τοῖς ὑπερ- 20
 έχουσι δὴ περὶ τὴν πράξιν ἔπεται τὸ φιλεῖν καὶ

¹ δὴ K^bΓ.

² ἡδεῖα . . . ὁμοίως post παροίχεται transponendum ed.

^a In a sense he exists 'actually' as long as his work lasts, though strictly speaking he exists as an actual maker only while the act of making is going on. A possible variant rendering is 'and in a sense the work is its maker actualized.'

^b This sentence in the MSS. follows the next.

NICOMACHEAN ETHICS, IX. vii. 3-6

is perhaps especially true of poets, who have an exaggerated affection for their own poems and love them as parents love their children. The position of the benefactor then resembles that of the artist; the recipient of his bounty is his handiwork, and he therefore loves him more than his handiwork loves its maker. The reason of this is that all things desire and love existence; but we exist in activity, since we exist by living and doing; and in a sense ^a the maker of some handiwork exists actively, and so he loves his handiwork because he loves existence. This is in fact a fundamental principle of nature: what a thing is potentially, that its work reveals in actuality.

Moreover for the benefactor there is an element of nobility in the act, and so he feels pleased with the person who is its object; but there is nothing noble for the recipient of the benefit in his relation to his benefactor: at most, it is profitable; and what is profitable is not so pleasant or lovable as what is noble. The doer's achievement therefore remains, for nobility or beauty is long-lived, but its utility to the recipient passes away.^b But while the actuality of the present, the hope of the future, and the memory of the past are all pleasant, actuality is the most pleasant of the three, and the most loved. Also whereas the memory of noble things is pleasant, that of useful ones is hardly at all so, or at least less so; although with anticipation the reverse seems to be the case.

Again, loving seems to be an active experience, being loved a passive one; hence affection and the various forms of friendly feeling are naturally found in the more active party to the relationship.

(b) Beneficence is noble.

(c) Affection an active principle.

7 τὰ φιλικά.—ἔτι δὲ τὰ ἐπιπόνως γενόμενα πάντες μάλλον στέργουσιν, οἷον καὶ τὰ χρήματα οἱ κτησάμενοι τῶν παραλαβόντων. δοκεῖ δέ¹ τὸ μὲν εὖ πάσχειν ἄπονον εἶναι, τὸ δ' εὖ ποιεῖν ἐργώδες. (διὰ ταῦτα δὲ καὶ αἱ μητέρες φιλοτεκνότεραι·²⁵ ἐπιπονωτέρα γὰρ ἢ γέννησις [καὶ μάλλον •ῖσασιν ὅτι αὐτῶν].²) δόξειε δὴ³ ἂν καὶ τοῦτο⁴ τοῖς εὐεργέταις οἰκεῖον εἶναι.

viii Ἀπορεῖται δὲ καὶ πότερον δεῖ φιλεῖν ἑαυτὸν μάλιστα ἢ ἄλλον τινά· ἐπιτιμῶσι γὰρ τοῖς ἑαυτοὺς μάλιστα ἀγαπῶσι, καὶ ὡς ἐν αἰσχυρῷ φιλαύτους ἀποκαλοῦσι· δοκεῖ τε ὁ μὲν φαῦλος ἑαυτοῦ χάριν³⁰ πάντα πράττειν, καὶ ὅσω ἂν μοχθηρότερος ᾖ, τοσούτῳ μάλλον (ἐγκαλοῦσι δὴ αὐτῷ οἷον⁵ ὅτι· οὐθὲν ἀφ' ἑαυτοῦ πράττει), ὁ δ' ἐπεικὴς διὰ τὸ καλόν, καὶ ὅσω ἂν βελτίων ᾖ, μάλλον διὰ τὸ καλόν, καὶ² φίλου ἔνεκα, τὸ δ' αὐτοῦ παρήσιν.—τοῖς λόγοις³⁵ δὲ τούτοις τὰ ἔργα διαφωνεῖ, οὐκ ἀλόγως. φασὶ^{1168 b} γὰρ δεῖν φιλεῖν μάλιστα τὸν μάλιστα φίλον· φίλος δὲ μάλιστα ὁ βουλούμενος ὧ⁶ βούλεται τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἔνεκα, καὶ εἰ μηθεὶς εἴσεται, ταῦτα δ' ὑπάρχει μάλιστ' αὐτῷ πρὸς αὐτόν, καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ δὴ πάνθ' οἷς ὁ φίλος ὀρίζεται· εἴρηται⁵ γὰρ ὅτι ἀπ' αὐτοῦ πάντα τὰ φιλικὰ καὶ πρὸς τοὺς ἄλλους διήκει. καὶ αἱ παροιμίαι δὲ πᾶσαι ὁμογνωμονοῦσιν, οἷον τὸ “μία ψυχὴ” καὶ “κοινὰ

¹ δὲ M^b: δὴ.

² Ramsauer.

³ δὴ Thurot: δὲ.

⁴ καὶ τοῦτο ed.: τοῦτο καὶ.

⁵ οἷον add. K^bΓ.

⁶ ἢ ᾧ K^b: ἢν ᾧ? Bywater.

^a This seems an irrelevant insertion from viii. xii. 2, fin.

^b See c. iv.

7 Again, everybody loves a thing more if it has cost him trouble: for instance those who have made money love money more than those who have inherited it. Now to receive a benefit seems to involve no labour, but to confer one is an effort. (This is why mothers love their children more than fathers, because parenthood costs the mother the more trouble [and the mother is more certain that the child is her own].^a) This also then would seem to be a characteristic of benefactors.

what has
cost us
trouble.

viii The question is also raised whether one ought to love oneself or someone else most. We censure those who put themselves first, and 'lover of self' is used as a term of reproach. And it is thought that a bad man considers himself in all he does, and the more so the worse he is—so it is a complaint against him for instance that 'he never does a thing unless you make him'—whereas a good man acts from a sense of what is noble, and the better he is the more he so acts, and considers his friend's interest, disregarding his own.

(11) Is Self-love right or wrong?

2 But the facts do not accord with these theories; nor is this surprising. For we admit that one should love one's best friend most; but the best friend is he that, when he wishes a person's good, wishes it for that person's own sake, even though nobody will ever know of it. Now this condition is most fully realized in a man's regard for himself, as indeed are all the other attributes that make up the definition of a friend; for it has been said already^b that all the feelings that constitute friendship for others are an extension of regard for self. Moreover, all the proverbs agree with this; for example, 'Friends have one soul between them,' 'Friends' goods are

ARISTOTLE

τὰ φίλων” καὶ “ἰσότης φιλότης” καὶ “γόνυ
κνήμης ἔγγιον”. πάντα γὰρ ταῦτα πρὸς αὐτὸν
μάλιστα ἂν ὑπάρχῃ, μάλιστα γὰρ φίλος αὐτῷ.¹⁰
καὶ φιλητέον δὴ μάλισθ’ ἐαυτόν. ἀπορεῖται δὴ¹
εἰκότως ποτέροις χρεὼν ἔπεσθαι, ἀμφοῖν ἐχόντων
τὸ πιστόν.

- 3 Ἴσως οὖν τοὺς τοιούτους δεῖ τῶν λόγων διαιρεῖν
καὶ διορίζειν ἐφ’ ὅσον ἐκάτεροι καὶ πῇ ἀλη-
θεύουσιν. εἰ δὴ λάβοιμεν τὸ φίλαυτον πῶς
4 ἐκάτεροι λέγουσιν, τάχ’ ἂν γένοιτο δῆλον. οἱ¹⁵
μὲν οὖν εἰς ὄνειδος ἄγοντες αὐτὸ φιλαύτους
καλοῦσι τοὺς ἐαυτοῖς ἀπονέμοντας τὸ πλεῖον ἐν
χρήμασι καὶ τιμαῖς καὶ ἡδοναῖς ταῖς σωματικαῖς·
τούτων γὰρ οἱ πολλοὶ ὀρέγονται, καὶ ἐσπουδάκασιν
περὶ αὐτὰ ὡς ἄριστα ὄντα, διὸ καὶ περιμάχητά
ἐστίν. οἱ δὲ περὶ ταῦτα πλεονέκται χαρίζονται
ταῖς ἐπιθυμίαις καὶ ὅλως τοῖς πάθεσι καὶ τῷ²⁰
ἀλόγῳ τῆς ψυχῆς. τοιοῦτοι δ’ εἰσὶν οἱ πολλοί·
διὸ καὶ ἡ προσηγορία γεγένηται ἀπὸ τοῦ πολλοῦ
φαύλου ὄντος. δικαίως δὲ τοῖς οὕτω φιλαύτοις
5 ὄνειδίζεται. ὅτι δὲ τοὺς τὰ τοιαῦθ’ αὐτοῖς ἀπο-
νέμοντας εἰώθασιν λέγειν οἱ πολλοὶ φιλαύτους, οὐκ
ἄδηλον· εἰ γὰρ τις ἀεὶ σπουδάξῃ τὰ δίκαια²⁵
πράττειν αὐτὸς μάλιστα πάντων ἢ τὰ σώφρονα
ἢ ὅποια οὖν ἄλλα τῶν κατὰ τὰς ἀρετάς, καὶ ὅλως

¹ δὴ Bywater: δέ.

common property,' 'Friendship is equality,' 'The knee is nearer than the shin.' All of these sayings will apply most fully to oneself; for a man is his own best friend. Therefore he ought to love himself most.

So it is naturally debated which of these two views we ought to adopt, since each of them has some plausibility.

3 Now perhaps the proper course where there is a conflict of opinion is to get the two views clearly distinguished, and to define how far and in what way each of them is true. So probably the matter may become clear if we ascertain what meaning each side attaches to the term 'self-love.'

Two meanings of Self-love.

4 Those then who make it a term of reproach call men lovers of self when they assign to themselves the larger share of money, honours, or bodily pleasures; since these are the things which most men desire and set their hearts on as being the greatest goods, and which accordingly they compete with each other to obtain. Now those who take more than their share of these things are men who indulge their appetites, and generally their passions and the irrational part of their souls. But most men are of this kind. Accordingly the use of the term 'lover of self' as a reproach has arisen from the fact that self-love of the ordinary kind is bad. Hence self-love is rightly censured in those who are lovers

5 of self in this sense. And that it is those who take too large a share of things of this sort whom most people usually mean when they speak of lovers of self, is clear enough. For if a man were always bent on outdoing everybody else in acting justly or temperately or in displaying any other of the

Noble Self-love a duty.

ARISTOTLE

ἀεὶ τὸ καλὸν ἑαυτῷ περιποιοῦτο, οὐθὲς ἐρεῖ
 6 τοῦτον φίλαυτον οὐδὲ ψέξει. δόξειε δ' ἂν ὁ
 τοιοῦτος μάλλον εἶναι φίλαυτος. ἀπονέμει γοῦν
 ἑαυτῷ τὰ καλλιστα καὶ μάλιστ' ἀγαθὰ, καὶ χαρί- 30
 ζεται ἑαυτοῦ τῷ κυριωτάτῳ, καὶ πάντα τούτῳ
 πείθεται· ὥσπερ δὲ καὶ πόλις τὸ κυριώτατον
 μάλιστ' εἶναι δοκεῖ καὶ πᾶν ἄλλο σύστημα, οὕτω
 καὶ ἄνθρωπος· καὶ φίλαυτος δὴ μάλιστα ὁ τοῦτο
 ἀγαπῶν καὶ τούτῳ χαριζόμενος. καὶ ἐγκρατῆς
 δὲ καὶ ἀκρατῆς λέγεται τῷ κρατεῖν τὸν νοῦν ἢ 35
 μὴ, ὡς τούτου ἐκάστου ὄντος. καὶ πεπραγένοι 1169 a
 δοκοῦσιν αὐτοὶ καὶ ἐκουσίως τὰ μετὰ λόγου
 μάλιστα. ὅτι μὲν οὖν τοῦθ' ἕκαστός ἐστιν ἢ
 μάλιστα, οὐκ ἄδηλον, καὶ ὅτι ὁ ἐπικτικῆς μάλιστα
 τοῦτ' ἀγαπᾷ. διὸ φίλαυτος μάλιστ' ἂν εἴη, καθ'
 ἕτερον εἶδος τοῦ ὀνειδιζομένου, καὶ διαφέρων
 τοσοῦτον ὅσον τὸ κατὰ λόγον ζῆν τοῦ κατὰ πάθος, 5
 καὶ ὀρέγεσθαι τοῦ¹ καλοῦ ἢ τοῦ δοκοῦντος²
 7 συμφέρειν. τοὺς μὲν οὖν περὶ τὰς καλὰς πράξεις
 διαφερόντως σπουδάζοντας πάντες ἀποδέχονται
 καὶ ἐπαινοῦσιν· πάντων δὲ ἀμιλλωμένων πρὸς
 τὸ καλὸν καὶ διατεινομένων τὰ κάλλιστα πράττειν
 κοινῇ τ' ἂν πάντ' εἴη τὰ δέοντα καὶ ἰδίᾳ ἐκάστῳ 10

¹ ἢ τοῦ K^b.

² [ἢ] τοῦ δοκοῦντος vel [ἢ] τοῦ <τοῦ> δοκοῦντος ? ed.

virtues, and in general were always trying to secure for himself moral nobility, no one would charge him
 6 with love of self nor find any fault with him. Yet as a matter of fact such a man might be held to be a lover of self in an exceptional degree. At all events he takes for himself the things that are noblest and most truly good. Also it is the most dominant part of himself that he indulges and obeys in everything. But (a) as in the state it is the sovereign that is held in the fullest sense to be the state, and in any other composite whole it is the dominant part that is deemed especially to be that whole, so it is with man. He therefore who loves and indulges the dominant part of himself is a lover of self in the fullest degree. Again (b), the terms 'self-restrained' and 'unrestrained' denote being restrained or not by one's intellect, and thus imply that the intellect is the man himself. Also (c) it is our reasoned acts that are felt to be in the fullest sense *our own* acts, *voluntary* acts. It is therefore clear that a man is or is chiefly the dominant part of himself, and that a good man loves this part of himself most. Hence the good man will be a lover of self in the fullest degree, though in another sense than the lover of self so-called by way of reproach, from whom he differs as much as living by principle differs from living by passion, and aiming at what is
 7 noble from aiming at what seems expedient. Persons therefore who are exceptionally covetous of noble actions are universally approved and commended; and if all men vied with each other in moral nobility and strove to perform the noblest deeds, the common welfare would be fully realized, while individuals

τὰ μέγιστα τῶν ἀγαθῶν, εἴπερ ἡ ἀρετὴ τοιοῦτόν
 ἐστίν. ὥστε τὸν μὲν ἀγαθὸν δεῖ φίλαυτον εἶναι,
 καὶ γὰρ αὐτὸς ὀνήσεται τὰ καλὰ πράττων καὶ
 τοὺς ἄλλους ὠφελήσει· τὸν δὲ μοχθηρὸν οὐ δεῖ,
 βλάψει γὰρ καὶ ἑαυτὸν καὶ τοὺς πέλας, φαύλοις
 8 πάθουσιν ἐπόμενος. τῷ μοχθηρῷ μὲν οὖν διαφωνεῖ 15
 ἃ δεῖ πράττειν καὶ ἃ πράττει· ὁ δ' ἐπιεικής, ἃ
 δεῖ, ταῦτα καὶ πράττει· πᾶς γὰρ νοῦς αἰρεῖται
 τὸ βέλτιστον ἑαυτῷ, ὁ δ' ἐπιεικής πειθαρχεῖ τῷ
 9 νῷ. ἀληθές δὲ περὶ τοῦ σπουδαίου καὶ τὸ τῶν
 φίλων ἔνεκα πολλὰ πράττειν καὶ τῆς πατρίδος,
 καὶν δέη ὑπεραποθνήσκειν· προήσεται γὰρ καὶ 20
 χρήματα καὶ τιμὰς καὶ ὅλως τὰ περιμάχητα
 ἀγαθὰ, περιποιούμενος ἑαυτῷ τὸ καλόν· ὀλίγον
 γὰρ χρόνον ἡσθῆναι σφόδρα μᾶλλον ἔλοιτ' ἂν
 ἢ πολὺν ἡρέμα, καὶ βιώσαι καλῶς ἑνιαυτὸν ἢ
 πόλλ' ἔτη τυχόντως, καὶ μίαν πρᾶξιν καλὴν καὶ
 μεγάλην ἢ πολλὰς καὶ μικράς. τοῖς δ' ὑπερ- 25
 αποθνήσκουσι τοῦτ' ἴσως συμβαίνει· αἰροῦνται δὴ
 μέγα καλὸν ἑαυτοῖς. καὶ χρήματα προοῖτ'¹ ἂν
 ἐφ' ᾧ πλείονα λήψονται οἱ φίλοι· γίνεταί γὰρ
 τῷ μὲν φίλῳ χρήματα, αὐτῷ δὲ τὸ καλόν· τὸ δὴ
 10 μείζον ἀγαθὸν ἑαυτῷ ἀπονέμει. καὶ περὶ τιμὰς
 δὲ καὶ ἀρχὰς ὁ αὐτὸς τρόπος· πάντα γὰρ τῷ φίλῳ 30
 ταῦτα προήσεται· καλὸν γὰρ αὐτῷ τοῦτο καὶ
 ἐπαινετόν. εἰκότως δὴ δοκεῖ σπουδαῖος εἶναι,
 ἀντὶ πάντων αἰρούμενος τὸ καλόν. ἐνδέχεται

¹ προοῖτ' ed.: προοῖντ'.

also could enjoy the greatest of goods, inasmuch as virtue is the greatest good.

Therefore the good man ought to be a lover of self, since he will then act nobly, and so both benefit himself and aid his fellows ; but the bad man ought not to be a lover of self, since he will follow his base passions, and so injure both himself and his neighbours. With the bad man therefore, what he does is not in agreement with what he ought to do, but the good man does what he ought, since intelligence always chooses for itself that which is best, and the good man obeys his intelligence.

9 But it is also true that the virtuous man's conduct is often guided by the interests of his friends and of his country, and that he will if necessary lay down his life in their behalf. For he will surrender wealth and power and all the goods that men struggle to win, if he can secure nobility for himself ; since he would prefer an hour of rapture to a long period of mild enjoyment, a year of noble life to many years of ordinary existence, one great and glorious exploit to many small successes. And this is doubtless the case with those who give their lives for others ; thus they choose great nobility for themselves. Also the virtuous man is ready to forgo money if by that means his friends may gain more money ; for thus, though his friends get money, he himself achieves nobility, and so he assigns the greater good to his
10 own share. And he behaves in the same manner as regards honours and offices also : all these things he will relinquish to his friends, for this is noble and praiseworthy for himself. He is naturally, therefore thought to be virtuous, as he chooses moral nobility in preference to all other things. It may even

δὲ καὶ πράξεις τῷ φίλῳ προῖεσθαι, καὶ εἶναι
 κάλλιον τοῦ αὐτὸν πρᾶξαι τὸ αἴτιον τῷ φίλῳ
 11 γενέσθαι. ἐν πᾶσι δὴ τοῖς ἐπαινετοῖς ὁ σπου- 35
 δαῖος φαίνεται ἑαυτῷ τοῦ καλοῦ πλεον νέμων. 1169
 οὕτω μὲν οὖν φίλαυτον εἶναι δεῖ, καθάπερ εἴρηται·
 ὥς δ' οἱ πολλοί, οὐ χρή.

ix Ἀμφισβητεῖται δὲ καὶ περὶ τὸν εὐδαίμονα,
 εἰ δεήσεται φίλων ἢ μή. οὐθὲν γάρ φασι δεῖν
 φίλων τοῖς μακαρίοις καὶ αὐτάρκεσιν· ὑπάρχειν 5
 γὰρ αὐτοῖς τὰγαθὰ· αὐτάρκεις οὖν ὄντας οὐδενὸς
 προσδεῖσθαι, τὸν δὲ φίλον, ἕτερον αὐτὸν ὄντα,
 πορίζειν ἅ δι' αὐτοῦ ἀδυνατεῖ· ὅθεν

ὅταν ὁ daίμων εὖ διδῶ, τί δεῖ φίλων;

2 ἔοικε δ' ἀτόπῳ τὸ πάντ' ἀπονέμοντας τὰγαθὰ τῷ
 εὐδαίμονι φίλους μὴ ἀποδιδόναι, ὃ δοκεῖ τῶν 10
 ἑκτὸς ἀγαθῶν μέγιστον εἶναι.—εἴ τε φίλου μᾶλλον
 ἐστὶ τὸ εὖ ποιεῖν ἢ πάσχειν, καὶ ἐστὶ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ
 καὶ τῆς ἀρετῆς τὸ εὐεργετεῖν, κάλλιον δ' εὖ
 ποιεῖν φίλους ὁθνείων, τῶν εὖ πεισομένων δεή-
 σεται ὁ σπουδαῖος. διὸ καὶ ἐπιζητεῖται πότερον
 ἐν εὐτυχίαις μᾶλλον δεῖ φίλων ἢ ἐν ἀτυχίαις, ὥς 15
 καὶ τοῦ ἀτυχοῦντος δεομένου τῶν εὐεργετησόντων
 3 καὶ τῶν εὐτυχούντων οὓς εὖ ποιήσουσιν.—ἄτοπον
 δ' ἴσως καὶ τὸ μονώτην ποιεῖν τὸν μακάριον·

^a Euripides, *Orestes*, 665.

happen that he will surrender to his friend the performance of some achievement, and that it may be nobler for him to be the cause of his friend's performing it than to perform it himself.

- 11 Therefore in all spheres of praiseworthy conduct it is manifest that the good man takes the larger share of moral nobility for himself. In this sense then, as we said above, it is right to be a lover of self, though self-love of the ordinary sort is wrong.

- ix Another debated question is whether friends are necessary or not for happiness. People say that the supremely happy are self-sufficing, and so have no need of friends: for they have the good things of life already, and therefore, being complete in themselves, require nothing further; whereas the function of a friend, who is a second self, is to supply things we cannot procure for ourselves. Hence the saying ^a
- (iii) Is Friendship necessary for Happiness?

When fortune favours us, what need of friends?

- 2 But it seems strange that if we attribute all good things to the happy man we should not assign him friends, which we consider the greatest of external goods. Also if it be more the mark of a friend to give than to receive benefits, and if beneficence is a function of the good man and of virtue, and it is nobler to benefit friends than strangers, the good man will need friends as the objects of his beneficence.
- Yes, (a) as an external good; (b) as an opportunity for beneficence; (c) Man a social being.

Hence the further question is asked: Are friends more needed in prosperity or in adversity? It is argued that the unfortunate need people to be kind to them, but also that the prosperous need people to whom they may be kind.

- 3 And it would be strange to represent the supremely

οὐθὲς γὰρ ἔλοιτ' ἂν καθ' αὐτὸν τὰ πάντ' ἔχειν ἀγαθὰ, πολιτικὸν γὰρ ὁ ἄνθρωπος καὶ συζῆν πεφυκός· καὶ τῷ εὐδαιμόνι δὴ τοῦθ' ὑπάρχει, τὰ γὰρ τῇ φύσει ἀγαθὰ ἔχει· δῆλον δ' ὡς μετὰ 20 φίλων καὶ ἐπεικῶν κρεῖττον ἢ μετ' ὀθνείων καὶ τῶν τυχόντων συνημερεύειν. δεῖ ἄρα τῷ εὐδαιμόνι φίλων.

- 4 Τί οὖν λέγουσιν οἱ πρῶτοι, καὶ πῇ ἀληθεύουσιν; ἢ ὅτι οἱ πολλοὶ φίλους οἴονται τοὺς χρησίμους εἶναι; τῶν τοιούτων μὲν οὖν οὐθὲν δεῖσεται ὁ μακάριος, ἐπειδὴ τὰγαθὰ ὑπάρχει αὐτῷ. οὐδὲ 25 δὴ τῶν διὰ τὸ ἡδύ, ἢ ἐπὶ μικρόν, ἡδὺς γὰρ ὁ βίος ὣν οὐθὲν δεῖται ἐπεισάκτου ἡδονῆς. οὐ δεόμενος δὲ τῶν τοιούτων φίλων οὐ δοκεῖ δεῖσθαι
- 5 φίλων.—τὸ δ' οὐκ ἔστιν ἴσως ἀληθές· ἐν ἀρχῇ γὰρ εἴρηται ὅτι ἡ εὐδαιμονία ἐνέργειά τις ἐστίν, ἢ δ' ἐνέργεια δῆλον ὅτι γίνεται καὶ οὐχ ὑπάρχει 30 ὥσπερ κτῆμά τι. εἰ δὲ τὸ εὐδαιμονεῖν ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ ζῆν καὶ ἐνεργεῖν, τοῦ δ' ἀγαθοῦ ἢ ἐνέργεια σπουδαία καὶ ἡδεῖα καθ' αὐτήν, καθάπερ ἐν ἀρχῇ εἴρηται, ἔστι δὲ καὶ τὸ οἰκεῖον τῶν ἡδέων, θεωρεῖν δὲ μᾶλλον τοὺς πέλας δυνάμεθα ἢ ἑαυτοὺς καὶ τὰς ἐκείνων πράξεις ἢ τὰς οἰκείας, 35

^a See I. vii. 6, note.

^b I. vii. 15. The argument for friendship from the definition of happiness as virtuous and therefore pleasant activity is threefold: (α) the virtuous actions of our friends give us (by sympathy) the same pleasure as our own; (β) good activities (e.g. study) can be carried on longer (because less liable to fatigue); (γ) virtuous friends increase our own virtue (as we unconsciously imitate their acts). Hence friends useful and pleasant because virtuous (though not useful or pleasant friends in the ordinary sense) are necessary adjuncts of happiness.

happy man as a recluse. Nobody would choose to have all possible good things on the condition that he must enjoy them alone; for man is a social being,^a and designed by nature to live with others; accordingly the happy man must have society, for he has everything that is naturally good. And it is obviously preferable to associate with good friends and with good men than with strangers and chance companions. Therefore the happy man requires friends.

4 What then do the upholders of the former view mean, and in what sense is it true? Perhaps the explanation of it is that most men think of friends as being people who are useful to us. Now it is true that the supremely happy man will have no need of friends of that kind, inasmuch as he is supplied with good things already. Nor yet will he want friends of the pleasant sort, or only to a very small extent, for his life is intrinsically pleasant and has no need of adventitious pleasure. And as he does not need useful or pleasant friends, it is assumed that he does not require friends at all.

5 But perhaps this inference is really untrue. For as we said at the beginning,^b happiness is a form of activity, and an activity clearly is something that comes into being, not a thing that we possess all the time, like a piece of property. But if happiness consists in life and activity, and the activity of a good man, as was said at the beginning,^c is good and so pleasant in itself, and if the sense that a thing is our own is also pleasant, yet we are better able to contemplate our neighbours than ourselves, and their

(d) The society of the good
(e) affords the spectacle of others' noble actions,

^c I. viii. 13.

αἱ τῶν σπουδαίων δὲ¹ πράξεις φίλων ὄντων ἡδεῖται 1170
 τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς (ἄμφω γὰρ ἔχουσι τὰ τῇ φύσει
 ἡδέα). ὁ μακάριος δὲ φίλων τοιούτων δεήσεται,
 ἔμπερ θεωρεῖν προαιρεῖται πράξεις ἐπιεικείς καὶ
 οἰκείας· τοιαῦται δ' αἱ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ φίλου ὄντος.—
 οἷονται τε δεῖν ἡδέως ζῆν τὸν εὐδαίμονα. μονώτῃ⁵
 μὲν οὖν χαλεπὸς ὁ βίος· οὐ γὰρ ῥάδιον καθ'
 αὐτὸν ἐνεργεῖν συνεχῶς, μεθ' ἐτέρων δὲ καὶ πρὸς
 6 ἄλλους ῥᾶον. ἔσται οὖν ἡ ἐνέργεια συνεχεστέρα,
 ἡδεῖα οὕσα καθ' αὐτήν, ὃ δεῖ περὶ τὸν μακάριον
 εἶναι. (ὁ γὰρ σπουδαῖος, ἡ σπουδαῖος, ταῖς
 κατ' ἀρετὴν πράξεσι χαίρει, ταῖς δ' ἀπὸ κακίας
 δυσχεραίνει, καθάπερ ὁ μουσικὸς τοῖς καλοῖς¹⁰
 μέλεσιν ἡδέεται, ἐπὶ δὲ τοῖς φαύλοις λυπεῖται.)²
 7 γίνοιτο δ' ἂν καὶ ἄσκησίς τις τῆς ἀρετῆς ἐκ τοῦ
 συζῆν τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς, καθάπερ καὶ Θεόγνις φησιν.
 —φυσικώτερον δ' ἐπισκοποῦσιν ἔοικεν ὁ σπουδαῖος
 φίλος τῷ σπουδαίῳ τῇ φύσει αἰρετὸς εἶναι. τὸ
 γὰρ τῇ φύσει ἀγαθὸν εἴρηται ὅτι τῷ σπουδαίῳ¹⁵
 ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἡδύ ἐστι καθ' αὐτό. τὸ δὲ ζῆν
 ὀρίζονται τοῖς ζώοις δυνάμει αἰσθήσεως, ἀνθρώ-
 ποις δ' αἰσθήσεως καὶ³ νοήσεως· ἡ δὲ δύναμις
 εἰς τὴν ἐνέργειαν ἀνάγεται, τὸ δὲ κύριον ἐν τῇ

¹ δὲ cod. C.C.C. Oxon., Ald.: δῆ.

² ὁ γὰρ . . . λυπεῖται supra ante 1169 b 33 ἔστι δὲ tr. Susemihl.

³ καὶ Zell et ut videtur Mich. Ephes.: ἡ.

^a i.e., they are good, and they are their own, i.e. like their own.

^b The last four words are implied by the context.

^c This parenthesis comes better in § 5 above, after the words, 'the activity of a good man . . . is good and pleasant in itself.'

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actions than our own, and thus good men find pleasure in the actions of other good men who are their friends, since those actions possess both these essentially pleasant qualities,^a it therefore follows that the supremely happy man will require good friends, inasmuch as he desires to contemplate actions that are good and that are his own, and the actions of a good man that is his friend are such. Also men think that the life of the happy man ought to be pleasant. Now a life of solitude is a hard life, for it is not easy to keep up continuous activity by oneself; it is easier to do so with the aid of and in relation to other people. The good man's activity therefore, which is pleasant in itself, will be more continuous if practised with friends^b; and the life of the supremely happy should be continuously pleasant^c (for a good man, in virtue of his goodness, enjoys actions that conform with virtue and dislikes those that spring from wickedness, just as a skilled musician is pleased by good music and 7 pained by bad). Moreover the society of the good may supply a sort of training in goodness, as Theognis^d remarks.

Again, if we examine the matter more fundamentally, it appears that a virtuous friend is essentially desirable for a virtuous man. For as has been said above, that which is essentially good is good and pleasing in itself to the virtuous man. And life is defined, in the case of animals, by the capacity for sensation; in the case of man, by the capacity for sensation and thought. But a capacity is referred to its activity, and in this its full reality consists.

^a Theognis 35 ἐσθλῶν μὲν γὰρ ἄπ' ἐσθλὰ μαθήσεται.

ἐνεργεία· ἔοικε δὴ τὸ ζῆν εἶναι κυρίως τὸ αἰ-
σθάνεσθαι ἢ νοεῖν. τὸ δὲ ζῆν τῶν καθ' αὐτὸ 20
ἀγαθῶν καὶ ἡδέων· ὠρισμένον γάρ, τὸ δ' ὠρι-
σμένον τῆς τὰγαθοῦ φύσεως, τὸ δὲ τῇ φύσει
ἀγαθὸν καὶ τῷ ἐπιεικεῖ, διόπερ ἔοικε πᾶσιν ἡδὺ
8 εἶναι. οὐ δεῖ δὲ λαμβάνειν μοχθηρὰν ζωὴν καὶ
διεφθαρμένην, οὐδ' ἐν λύπαις· ἀόριστος γὰρ ἡ
τοιαύτη, καθάπερ τὰ ὑπάρχοντα αὐτῇ. (ἐν τοῖς 25
ἐχομένοις δὲ περὶ τῆς λύπης ἔσται φανερώτερον.)
9 εἰ δ' αὐτὸ τὸ ζῆν ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἡδύ (ἔοικε δὲ καὶ
ἐκ τοῦ πάντας ὀρέγεσθαι αὐτοῦ, καὶ μάλιστα
τοὺς ἐπιεικεῖς καὶ μακαρίους· τούτοις γὰρ ὁ βίος
αἰρετώτατος, καὶ ἡ τούτων μακαριωτάτη ζωή),
ὁ δ' ὁρῶν ὅτι ὀρᾷ αἰσθάνεται καὶ ὁ ἀκούων ὅτι
ἀκούει καὶ ὁ βαδίζων ὅτι βαδίζει, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν 30
ἄλλων ὁμοίως ἔστι τι τὸ αἰσθανόμενον ὅτι ἐν-
εργοῦμεν, ὥστε ἂν αἰσθανώμεθ',¹ ὅτι αἰσθανόμεθα,
κἂν νοῶμεν,² ὅτι νοοῦμεν, τὸ δ' ὅτι αἰσθανό-
μεθα ἢ νοοῦμεν, ὅτι ἐσμέν (τὸ γὰρ εἶναι ἦν αἰ-
σθάνεσθαι ἢ νοεῖν), τὸ δ' αἰσθάνεσθαι ὅτι ζῆν τῶν 1170 b
ἡδέων καθ' αὐτὸ (φύσει γὰρ ἀγαθὸν ζωή, τὸ δ'
ἀγαθὸν ὑπάρχον ἐν ἑαυτῷ αἰσθάνεσθαι ἡδύ),
αἰρετὸν δὲ τὸ ζῆν καὶ μάλιστα τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς, ὅτι
τὸ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν ἐστὶν αὐτοῖς, καὶ ἡδύ ([συν-]
αἰσθανόμενοι³ γὰρ τοῦ καθ' αὐτὸ ἀγαθοῦ ἡδονται),
10 ὥς δὲ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν ἔχει ὁ σπουδαῖος, καὶ πρὸς

¹ ἂν αἰσθανώμεθα Bywater: αἰσθανόμεθ' ἂν K^b, αἰσθανοίμεθ' ἂν Γ, αἰσθανοίμεθα δ' ἂν L^b.

² κἂν νοῶμεν Bywater: καὶ νοοῦμεν K^b, καὶ νοοίμεν vulg.

³ [συν]αἰσθανόμενοι ed.

^a i.e., vice and pain.

^b αἰσθάνεσθαι is used throughout to denote 'consciousness' (as well as, where needed, 'sensation'). At 1170 b 11 συν- 562

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It appears therefore that life in the full sense is sensation or thought. But life is a thing good and pleasant in itself, for it is definite, and definiteness is a part of the essence of goodness, and what is essentially good is good for the good man, and hence appears to be pleasant to all men. We must not argue from a vicious and corrupt life, or one that is painful, for such a life is indefinite, like its attributes.^a (The point as to pain will be clearer in the sequel.) But if life itself is good and pleasant (as it appears to be, because all men desire it, and virtuous and supremely happy men most of all, since their way of life is most desirable and their existence the most blissful); and if one who sees is conscious^b that he sees, one who hears that he hears, one who walks that he walks, and similarly for all the other human activities there is a faculty that is conscious of their exercise, so that whenever we perceive, we are conscious that we perceive, and whenever we think, we are conscious that we think, and to be conscious that we are perceiving or thinking is to be conscious that we exist (for existence, as we saw, is sense-perception or thought); and if to be conscious one is alive is a pleasant thing in itself (for life is a thing essentially good, and to be conscious that one possesses a good thing is pleasant); and if life is desirable, and especially so for good men, because existence is good for them, and so pleasant (because they are pleased by the perception of what is intrinsically good); and if the virtuous man feels towards his friend in the same way as he feels

αἰσθάνεσθαι expresses sympathetic consciousness of another's thoughts and feelings; it is probable therefore that in l. 4 the compound verb is a copyist's mistake.

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τὸν φίλον (ἕτερος γὰρ αὐτὸς ὁ φίλος ἐστίν).
καθάπερ οὖν τὸ αὐτὸν εἶναι αἰρετόν ἐστιν ἐκάστω,
οὕτω καὶ τὸ τὸν φίλον, ἢ παραπλησίως. τὸ δ'
εἶναι ἦν αἰρετόν διὰ τὸ αἰσθάνεσθαι αὐτοῦ¹ ἀγαθοῦ
ὄντος, ἢ δὲ τοιαύτη αἴσθησις ἡδεῖα καθ' ἑαυτήν· 10
συναισθάνεσθαι ἄρα δεῖ καὶ τοῦ φίλου ὅτι ἔστιν,
τοῦτο δὲ γίνουτ' ἂν ἐν τῷ συζῆν καὶ κοιωνεῖν
λόγων καὶ διανοίας· οὕτω γὰρ ἂν δόξειε τὸ
συζῆν ἐπὶ τῶν ἀνθρώπων λέγεσθαι, καὶ οὐχ ὥσπερ
ἐπὶ τῶν βοσκημάτων τὸ² ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ νέμεσθαι.
εἰ δὴ τῷ μακαρίῳ τὸ εἶναι αἰρετόν ἐστι καθ'
αὐτό, ἀγαθὸν τῇ φύσει ὃν καὶ ἡδύ, παραπλήσιον 15
δὲ καὶ τὸ τοῦ φίλου ἐστίν, καὶ ὁ φίλος τῶν αἰρετῶν
ἂν εἴη. ὁ δ' ἐστὶν αὐτῷ αἰρετόν, τοῦτο δεῖ
ὑπάρχειν αὐτῷ, ἢ ταύτῃ ἐνδεῆς ἔσται. δεήσει
ἄρα τῷ εὐδαιμονήσοντι φίλων σπουδαίων.

κ ³ Ἀρ' οὖν ὥς πλείστους φίλους ποιητέον; ἢ 20
καθάπερ ἐπὶ τῆς ξενίας ἐμμελῶς εἰρῆσθαι δοκεῖ—

μήτε πολύξεινος μήτ' ἄξεινος—

καὶ ἐπὶ τῆς φιλίας ἀρμόσει μήτ' ἄφιλον εἶναι
2 μήτ' αὖ πολύφιλον καθ' ὑπερβολήν; τοῖς μὲν δὴ
πρὸς χρήσιν καὶ πάντῃ δόξειεν ἂν ἀρμόζειν τὸ
1 λεχθέν (πολλοῖς γὰρ ἀνθυπηρετεῖν ἐπίπονον, καὶ 25
οὐχ ἱκανὸς ὁ βίος [αὐτοῖς]³ τοῦτο πράττειν· οἱ

¹ αὐτοῦ? ed.

² τῷ? Bywater.

³ [αὐτοῖς] Ramsauer: αὐτὸ K^b, αὐτῷ M^b, αὐτὸ [τοῦτο] Bywater.

^a Perhaps to be emended 'of its goodness,' cf. l. 5 of the Greek. It is consciousness of life as good that makes it pleasant and desirable.

towards himself (for his friend is a second self)—therefore, just as a man's own existence is desirable for him, so, or nearly so, is his friend's existence also desirable. But, as we saw, it is the consciousness of oneself as good^a that makes existence desirable, and such consciousness is pleasant in itself. Therefore a man ought also to share his friend's consciousness of his existence, and this is attained by their living together and by conversing and communicating their thoughts to each other; for this is the meaning of living together as applied to human beings, it does not mean merely feeding in the same place, as it does when applied to cattle.

If then to the supremely happy man existence is desirable in itself, being good and pleasant essentially, and if his friend's existence is almost equally desirable to him, it follows that a friend is one of the things to be desired. But that which is desirable for him he is bound to have, or else his condition will be incomplete in that particular. Therefore to be happy a man needs virtuous friends.

- x Ought we then to make as many friends as possible? or, just as it seems a wise saying about hospitality—

Neither with troops of guests nor yet with none^b—

so also with friendship perhaps it will be fitting neither to be without friends nor yet to make friends in excessive numbers. This rule would certainly seem applicable to those friends whom we choose for their utility; for it is troublesome^c to have to repay the services of a large number of people, and life is not long enough for one to do it. Any more

(iv) Should the number of our friends be limited?

Yes, in all three kinds of Friendship.

^b μηδὲ πολὺ ξείνων μηδ' ἄξιων καλέεσθαι (Hesiod, *Works and Days*, 715).

^c But cf. viii. vi. 3.

πλείους δὴ τῶν πρὸς τὸν οἰκεῖον βίον ἱκανῶν
 περιέργοι καὶ ἐμπόδιοι πρὸς τὸ καλῶς ζῆν·
 οὐθὲν οὖν δεῖ αἰσίων· καὶ οἱ πρὸς ἡδονὴν δὲ
 ἀρκοῦσιν ὀλίγοι, καθάπερ ἐν τῇ τροφῇ τὸ ἡδυσμα·
 3 τοὺς δὲ σπουδαίους πότερον <ὥς>¹ πλείστους κατ' 80
 ἀριθμόν, ἢ ἔστι τι μέτρον καὶ φιλικοῦ πλήθους,
 ὥσπερ πόλεως; οὔτε γὰρ ἐκ δέκα ἀνθρώπων
 γένοιτ' ἂν πόλις, οὔτ' ἐκ δέκα μυριάδων ἔτι
 πόλις ἐστίν· τὸ δὲ ποσὸν οὐκ ἔστιν ἴσως ἔν τι,
 ἀλλὰ πᾶν τὸ μεταξὺ τινῶν ὠρισμένων. καὶ
 φίλων δὴ ἔστι πλήθος ὠρισμένον, καὶ ἴσως οἱ 1171
 πλείστοι μεθ' ὧν ἂν δύναιτό τις συζῆν (τοῦτο
 4 γὰρ ἐδόκει φιλικώτατον εἶναι)· ὅτι δ' οὐχ οἷόν
 τε πολλοῖς συζῆν καὶ διανέμειν αὐτόν, οὐκ ἄ-
 δηλον. ἔτι δὲ κακείνους δεῖ ἀλλήλοις φίλους εἶναι,
 εἰ μέλλουσι πάντες μετ' ἀλλήλων συνημερεύειν, 5
 5 τοῦτο δ' ἐργῶδες ἐν πολλοῖς ὑπάρχειν. χαλεπὸν
 δὲ γίνεται καὶ τὸ συγχαίρειν καὶ τὸ συναλγεῖν
 οἰκείως πολλοῖς· εἰκὸς γὰρ συμπύπτειν ἅμα τῷ
 μὲν συνήδεσθαι τῷ δὲ συνάχεσθαι. ἴσως οὖν
 εἶ ἔχει μὴ ζητεῖν ὥς πολυφιλώτατον εἶναι, ἀλλὰ
 τοσούτους ὅσοι εἰς τὸ συζῆν ἱκανοί. οὐδὲ γὰρ 10
 ἐνδέχεσθαι δόξειεν ἂν πολλοῖς εἶναι φίλον σφόδρα,
 διόπερ οὐδ' ἐρᾶν πλειόνων· ὑπερβολὴ γάρ τις

¹ <ὥς> ? Richards.

therefore than are sufficient for the requirements of one's own life will be superfluous, and a hindrance to noble living, so one is better without them. Of friends for pleasure also a few are enough, just as a small amount of sweets is enough in one's diet.

³ But should one have as many good friends as possible? or is there a limit of size for a circle of friends, as there is for the population of a state? Ten people would not make a city, and with a hundred thousand it is a city no longer; though perhaps the proper size is not one particular number, but any number between certain limits. So also the number of one friends must be limited, and should perhaps be the largest number with whom one can constantly associate; since, as we saw,^a to live together is the

⁴ chief mark of friendship, but it is quite clear that it is not possible to live with and to share oneself among a large number of people. Another essential is that one's friends must also be the friends of one another, if they are all to pass the time in each other's company; but for a large number of people

⁵ all to be friends is a difficult matter. Again, it is difficult to share intimately in the joys and sorrows of many people; for one may very likely be called upon to rejoice with one and to mourn with another at the same time.

Perhaps therefore it is a good rule not to seek to have as many friends as possible, but only as many as are enough to form a circle of associates. Indeed it would appear to be impossible to be very friendly with many people, for the same reason as it is impossible to be in love with several people. Love means friendship in the superlative degree, and

^a Cf. VIII. v. 1.

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εἶναι βούλεται φιλίας, τοῦτο δὲ πρὸς ἓνα· καὶ
 6 τὸ σφόδρα δὴ πρὸς ὀλίγους. οὕτω δ' ἔχειν ἔοικε
 καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν πραγμάτων· οὐ γίνονται γὰρ φίλοι
 πολλοὶ κατὰ τὴν ἑταιρικὴν φιλίαν, αἱ δ' ὕμνου- 15
 μεναι ἐν δυσὶ λέγονται. οἱ δὲ πολύφιλοι καὶ
 πᾶσιν οἰκείως ἐντυγχάνοντες οὐδενὶ δοκοῦσιν
 εἶναι φίλοι (πλήν πολιτικῶς)· οὓς καὶ καλοῦσιν
 ἀρέσκους. πολιτικῶς μὲν οὖν ἔστι πολλοῖς εἶναι
 φίλον καὶ μὴ ἄρεσκον ὄντα, ἀλλ' ὥς ἀληθῶς
 ἐπικειῆ· δι' ἀρετὴν δὲ καὶ δι' αὐτοὺς¹ οὐκ ἔστι
 πρὸς πολλοὺς, ἀγαπητὸν δὲ καὶ ὀλίγους εὐρεῖν 20
 τοιοῦτους.

- xi Πότερον δ' ἐν εὐτυχίαις μᾶλλον φίλων δεῖ ἢ
 ἐν δυστυχίαις; ἐν ἀμφοῖν γὰρ ἐπιζητοῦνται· οἷ
 τε γὰρ ἀτυχοῦντες δέονται ἐπικουρίας, οἷ τ'
 εὐτυχοῦντες συμβίων καὶ οὓς εὖ ποιήσουσιν·
 βούλονται γὰρ εὖ δρᾶν. ἀναγκαιότερον μὲν δὴ
 ἐν ταῖς ἀτυχίαις, διὸ τῶν χρησίμων ἐνταῦθα δεῖ, 25
 κάλλιον δ' ἐν ταῖς εὐτυχίαις, διὸ καὶ τοὺς ἐπικεικείς
 ζητοῦσιν· τούτους γὰρ αἰρετώτερον εὐεργετεῖν
 2 καὶ μετὰ τούτων διάγειν. ἔστι γὰρ καὶ ἡ παρουσία
 αὐτῇ τῶν φίλων ἡδεῖα καὶ ἐν ταῖς εὐτυχίαις²
 καὶ ἐν ταῖς δυστυχίαις. κουφίζονται γὰρ οἱ
 λυπούμενοι συναλγούντων τῶν φίλων· διὸ καὶ
 ἀπορήσειέν τις πότερον ὥσπερ βάρους μετα-
 λαμβάνουσιν, ἢ τοῦτο μὲν οὐ, ἢ παρουσία δ'

¹ αὐτοὺς Bywater: αὐτοὺς. ² καὶ ἐν ταῖς εὐτυχίαις om. K^b.

^a See note on VIII. v. 3.

^b Such as Achilles and Patroclus, Orestes and Pylades, Theseus and Pirithous. It is not quite clear whether they are quoted as examples of comradeship or of friendship in general.

that must be with one person only; so also warm friendship is only possible with a few.

- 6 This conclusion seems to be supported by experience. Friendships between comrades^a only include a few people, and the famous examples of poetry^b are pairs of friends. Persons of many friendships, who are hail-fellow-well-met with everybody, are thought to be real friends of nobody (otherwise than as fellow-citizens are friends): I mean the sort of people we call obsequious. It is true that one may be friendly with many fellow-citizens and not be obsequious, but a model of excellence; but it is not possible to have many friends whom we love for their virtue and for themselves. We may be glad to find even a few friends of this sort.

- xi But do we need friends more in prosperity or in adversity? As a matter of fact men seek friends in both. The unfortunate require assistance; the prosperous want companions, and recipients of their bounty, since they wish to practise beneficence. Hence friendship is more necessary in adversity, so then it is useful friends that are wanted; but it is nobler in prosperity, so the prosperous seek also for good men as friends, since these are preferable both as objects of beneficence and as associates.

(v) Are friends more needed in prosperity or adversity? Answer, they are needed in both.

- 2 Also^c the mere presence of friends is pleasant both in prosperity and adversity. Sorrow is lightened by the sympathy of friends. Hence the question may be raised whether friends actually share the burden of grief, or whether, without this being the case, the pain is nevertheless diminished by the

^c This gives a further reason for the second sentence of the chapter, and adds the motive of pleasure to those of utility and virtue.

αὐτῶν ἡδεῖα οὖσα καὶ ἡ ἔννοια τοῦ συναλγεῖν
 ἐλάττω τὴν λύπην ποιεῖ. εἰ μὲν οὖν διὰ ταῦτα
 ἢ δι' ἄλλο τι κουφίζονται, ἀφείσθω· συμβαίνειν
 3 δ' οὖν φαίνεται τὸ λεχθέν. ἔοικε δ' ἡ παρουσία
 μικτὴ τις αὐτῶν¹ εἶναι. αὐτὸ μὲν γὰρ τὸ ὁρᾶν³⁵
 τοὺς φίλους ἡδύ, ἄλλως τε καὶ ἀτυχοῦντι, καὶ^{1171 b}
 γίνεται τις ἐπικουρία πρὸς τὸ μὴ λυπεῖσθαι·
 παραμυθητικὸν γὰρ ὁ φίλος καὶ τῇ ὄψει καὶ τῷ
 λόγῳ, ἐὰν ἡ ἐπιδέξιος· οἶδε γὰρ τὸ ἡθος καὶ ἐφ'
 4 οἷς ἡδεται καὶ λυπεῖται. τὸ δὲ λυπούμενον
 αἰσθάνεσθαι ἐπὶ ταῖς αὐτοῦ ἀτυχίαις λυπηρόν·⁵
 πᾶς γὰρ φεύγει λύπης αἷτιος εἶναι τοῖς φίλοις.
 διόπερ οἱ μὲν ἀνδρώδεις τὴν φύσιν εὐλαβοῦνται
 συλλυπεῖν τοὺς φίλους αὐτοῖς, καὶ μὴ ὑπερτείνῃ
 τῇ ἀλυπία, τὴν ἐκείνοις γινομένην λύπην οὐχ
 ὑπομένει, ὅλως τε συνθρήνους οὐ προσίεται διὰ
 τὸ μηδ' αὐτὸς εἶναι θρηνητικός· γυναῖκα δὲ καὶ¹⁰
 οἱ τοιοῦτοι ἄνδρες τοῖς συστένουσι χαίρουσι, καὶ
 φιλοῦσιν ὥς φίλους καὶ συναλγοῦντας. μιμεῖσθαι
 5 δ' ἐν ᾗ πασι δεῖ δῆλον ὅτι τὸν βελτίω. ἢ δ' ἐν
 ταῖς εὐτυχίαις τῶν φίλων παρουσία τὴν τε δι-
 αγωγὴν ἡδεῖαν ἔχει καὶ τὴν ἔννοιαν ὅτι ἡδονται
 ἐπὶ τοῖς αὐτοῦ ἀγαθοῖς. διὸ δόξειεν ἂν δεῖν εἰς¹⁵
 μὲν τὰς εὐτυχίας καλεῖν τοὺς φίλους προθύμως
 (εὐεργετητικὸν γὰρ εἶναι καλόν), εἰς δὲ τὰς ἀτυχίας

¹ αὐτῶν <ἡδονῇ>? ed.

pleasure of their company and by the consciousness of their sympathy. Whether one of these reasons or some other gives the true explanation of the consoling power of friendship need not now be considered, but in any case it appears to have the effect described.

- 3 Yet the pleasure that the company of friends affords seems to be of a mixed nature. It is true that the very sight of them is pleasant, especially in time of misfortune, and is a considerable help in restraining sorrow; for a friend, if tactful, can comfort us with look and word, as he knows our characters and what things give us pleasure and pain.
- 4 But on the other hand to see another pained by our own misfortunes is painful, as everyone is reluctant to be a cause of pain to his friends. Hence manly natures shrink from making their friends share their pain, and unless a man is excessively insensitive, he cannot bear the pain that his pain gives to them: and he will not suffer others to lament with him, because he is not given to lamentation himself. But weak women and womanish men like those who mourn with them, and love them as true friends and sympathizers. However, it is clear that in everything we ought to copy the example of the man of nobler nature.
- 5 In prosperity again the company of friends sweetens our hours of leisure, and also affords the pleasure of the consciousness of their pleasure in our welfare.

Hence it may be thought that we ought to be forward in inviting our friends to share our good fortune (since it is noble to wish to bestow benefits), but backward in asking them to come to us in

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ὁκνοῦντα (μεταδιδόναι γὰρ ὡς ἥκιστα δεῖ τῶν
κακῶν, ὅθεν τὸ “ ἄλῖς ἐγὼ δυστυχῶν ”). μάλιστα
δὲ παρακλητέον, ὅταν μέλλωσιν ὀλίγα ὀχληθέντες
6 μεγάλ’ αὐτὸν ὠφελήσιν. ἵέναι δ’ ἀνάπαλιν ἴσως ²⁰
ἁρμόζει πρὸς μὲν τοὺς ἀτυχοῦντας ἄκλητον καὶ
προθύμως (φίλου γὰρ <τὸ>¹ εἶποιεν, καὶ μάλιστα
τοὺς ἐν χρεῖᾳ καὶ [τὸ]² μὴ ἀξιώσαντας³. ἀμφοῖν
γὰρ κάλλιον καὶ ἥδιον), εἰς δὲ τὰς εὐτυχίας συν-
εργοῦντα μὲν προθύμως (καὶ γὰρ εἰς ταῦτα χρεῖα
φίλων), πρὸς εὐπάθειαν δὲ σχολαίως (οὐ γὰρ καλὸν ²⁵
τὸ προθυμεῖσθαι ὠφελεῖσθαι). δόξαν δ’ ἀηδίας ἐν
τῷ διωθεῖσθαι ἴσως εὐλαβητέον· ἐνίστε γὰρ συμ-
βαίνει. ἡ παρουσία δὲ τῶν φίλων ἐν ἅπασιν αἰρετὴ
φαίνεται.

- xii Ἄρ’ οὖν, ὥσπερ τοῖς ἐρῶσι τὸ ὁρᾶν ἀγαπη-
τότατόν ἐστι καὶ μᾶλλον αἰροῦνται ταύτην τὴν ³⁰
αἴσθησιν ἢ τὰς λοιπὰς, ὡς κατὰ ταύτην μάλιστα
τοῦ ἔρωτος ὄντος καὶ γινομένου, οὕτω καὶ τοῖς
φίλοις αἰρετώτατόν ἐστι τὸ συζῆν; κοινωνία
γὰρ ἡ φιλία. καὶ ὡς πρὸς ἑαυτὸν ἔχει, οὕτω
καὶ πρὸς τὸν φίλον, περὶ αὐτὸν δ’ ἡ αἴσθησις ὅτι
ἔστιν αἰρετὴ, καὶ περὶ τὸν φίλον δὴ· ἡ δ’ ἐνέργεια ³⁵
γίνεται αὐτῆς⁴ ἐν τῷ συζῆν, ὥστ’ εἰκότως τούτου 1172:

¹ Bywater.² [τὸ] Bywater: τοῦτο Γ, om. M^b.³ ἀξιώσαντος K^b.⁴ αὐτοῖς Ar.^a Cf. viii. i. 1 fin., 2 fin.^b See c. iv. and c. ix. 5.^c Or possibly, ‘and friendship is realized in intercourse,’
a separate reason for the thesis of the first sentence.

misfortune (since we should impart to others as little as possible of what is evil: whence the proverb 'My own misfortune is enough'). We should summon our friends to our aid chiefly when they will be of great service to us at the cost of little trouble to themselves.

- 6 So, conversely, it is perhaps fitting that we should go uninvited and readily to those in misfortune (for it is the part of a friend to render service, and especially to those in need, and without being asked, since assistance so rendered is more noble and more pleasant for both parties); but to the prosperous, though we should go readily to help them (for even prosperity needs the co-operation of friends),^a we should be slow in going when it is a question of enjoying their good things (for it is not noble to be eager to receive benefits). But doubtless we should be careful to avoid seeming churlish in repulsing their advances, a thing that does sometimes occur.

It appears therefore that the company of friends is desirable in all circumstances.

- xii As then lovers find their greatest delight in seeing those they love, and prefer the gratification of the sense of sight to that of all the other senses, that sense being the chief seat and source of love, so likewise for friends (may we not say?) the society of each other is the most desirable thing there is. For (i) friendship is essentially a partnership. And (ii) a man stands in the same relation to a friend as to himself^b; but the consciousness of his own existence is a good; so also therefore is the consciousness of his friend's existence; but this^c consciousness is actualized in intercourse; hence friends naturally

V. Conclusion: the value of the society of friends

2 ἐφίενται. καὶ ὃ τι ποτ' ἐστὶν ἐκάστοις τὸ εἶναι
 ἢ οὐ χάριν αἰροῦνται τὸ ζῆν, ἐν τούτῳ μετὰ τῶν
 φίλων βούλονται διάγειν· διόπερ οἱ μὲν συμπίνου-
 σιν, οἱ δὲ συγκυβεύουσιν, ἄλλοι δὲ συγγυμνάζονται
 καὶ συγκυνηγοῦσιν ἢ συμφιλοσοφοῦσιν, ἕκαστοι 5
 ἐν τούτῳ συνημερεύοντες ὃ τί περ μάλιστα
 ἀγαπῶσι τῶν ἐν τῷ βίῳ· συζῆν γὰρ βουλόμενοι
 μετὰ τῶν φίλων, ταῦτα ποιοῦσι καὶ τούτων
 3 κοινωνοῦσιν ὡς οἶόν τε¹ [συζῆν]² <μάλιστα>.³ γίνεται
 οὖν ἢ μὲν τῶν φαύλων φιλία μοχθηρά (κοινωνοῦσι
 γὰρ φαύλων [ἀβέβαιοι ὄντες],³ καὶ μοχθηροὶ δὲ 10
 γίνονται ὁμοιούμενοι ἀλλήλοις), ἢ δὲ τῶν ἐπιεικῶν
 ἐπιεικῆς, συναυξανομένη ταῖς ὁμιλίαις· δοκοῦσι δὲ
 καὶ βελτίους γίνεσθαι ἐνεργοῦντες καὶ διορθοῦντες
 ἀλλήλους· ἀπομάττονται γὰρ παρ' ἀλλήλων οἷς
 ἀρέσκονται, ὅθεν

ἐσθλῶν μὲν γὰρ ἅπ' ἐσθλά.

Περὶ μὲν οὖν φιλίας ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον εἰρήσθω· 15
 ἐπόμενον δ' ἂν εἴη διελθεῖν περὶ ἡδονῆς.

¹ ὡς οἶόν τε K^b: οἷς οἶονται.

² ed. (οἷς οἶονται εὖ ζῆν Bekker).

³ ed.

^a The text is doubtful; most mss. give, 'by which they think that they live in their society.'

2 desire each other's society. And (iii) whatever pursuit it is that constitutes existence for a man or that makes his life worth living, he desires to share that pursuit with his friends. Hence some friends drink or dice together, others practise athletic sports and hunt, or study philosophy, in each other's company; each sort spending their time together in the occupation that they love best of everything in life; for wishing to live in their friends' society, they pursue and take part with them in these occupations as much as possible.^a

3 Thus the friendship of inferior people is evil, for they take part together in inferior pursuits, and by becoming like each other are made positively evil. But the friendship of the good is good, and grows with their intercourse. And they seem actually to become better by putting their friendship into practice,^b and because they correct each other's faults, for each takes the impress from the other of those traits in him that give him pleasure—whence the saying :

Good lessons from the good.^c

So much for our treatment of Friendship. Our next business will be to discuss Pleasure.

^b For ἐνεργεῖν (sc. φιλικῶς) = συζῆν cf. VIII. v. 1.

^c Cf. c. ix. 7.